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NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW

1915

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PRESENT PHASES OF THE MUNICIPAL SITUATION

BY CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF[1]
Philadelphia

NATURALLY the questions uppermost at this time in the minds of students of municipal conditions are: What effect is the great European war having upon the municipal situation? Has it diverted interest? And if so, in what way? Has it interfered with the orderly functioning of the city? Has it stopped public improvements? Has it hurt municipal credit, and the development of sound municipal sentiment?

To each of these queries, a separate and extended answer could be given, but generally speaking, the influence, by and large, of the war on American municipal life has been much less than was reasonably anticipated. This assertion is based on a great mass of testimony gathered mainly from personal letters from editors of long experience as trained observers of public opinion in their respective localities. In the words of one: "I have been unable to note any effect upon municipal activities in Los Angeles because of the European war; and I do not anticipate any material diversion from municipal affairs, nor does there seem to be any indication that the war will hurt public improvements unless it be for those projects which depend upon the sale of bonds."

Seattle reports that the European war "has not appreciably affected municipal conditions in Seattle, unless perhaps it may be in bringing more sober attention to matters of taxation and the like," certainly a most desirable result, and right here it may be pertinent to remark that increasing federal and state expenses are destined to have the same effect.

So far as the Pacific Coast is concerned there is practically but one story. The same is true of the central sections. New England bears similar testimony, a New Haven editor expressing the belief that is commonly held that "municipal conditions are not affected; and if affected at all, they are improved slightly instead of being the other way around, nor are public improvements affected by the war agitation." The same message comes from the middle states. In short, a great mass of correspondence reflects the fact that the American municipal citizen, while profoundly interested in every phase of the greatest war of recorded history, is nevertheless going about his municipal business just about the same as usual, but with somewhat more care, thoughtfulness and sobriety than formerly.

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[1] Twentieth Annual Review of the Secretary of the National Municipal League.

Nor has the war interfered with the orderly functions of the cities. There has been a natural conservatism in the undertaking of new work and the assumption of new functions; but so far as reported there has been no abandonment of those lines of activities previously assumed and regularly carried on. Although it must be pointed out that if it had not been for the war, the new year would have seen the greatest development of municipal activity the country has ever witnessed, along both physical and general lines, and I am not at all sure that the war will check the latter. That it has seriously interfered with the former, however, there can be no doubt, due, however, undoubtedly to the unsettled financial condition of the country.

From all sections comes the word that there is great difficulty in placing city loans, at least through the usual channels. Although there have been notable exceptions as in the case of New York, which with comparative ease floated a loan of $100,000,000 to take up the city stock held abroad and falling due this autumn.

Municipal credit as such does not seem to be hurt or jeopardized. The trouble seems to be in the disinclination of the capitalists to invest in municipal or any other issues, although this timidity and unwillingness is beginning to show signs of disappearing, and the belief quite widely prevails that where municipal bond issues are offered in popular amounts and over the counter, as described in the review of last year's municipal events[2] they will be promptly taken up. Indeed the opinion prevails among financial authorities that the European situation in time, and that a comparatively short one, will make municipal securities the most desirable in America. The solution of the present problem is the issuance of short term notes, not revenue bonds issued in anticipation of taxes maturing in six or eight months, but two, three and four-year or one to five-year serial securities, similar to the recent six per cent corporate stock notes issued by New York City, carrying interest at five or five and one half per cent or possibly a little higher, according to the size and credit of the borrower.

From the city's standpoint there is a great advantage in this policy enabling it to avail itself of cheap money. In the words of *The Bond Buyer:* "When the notes approach maturity, say in 1917 or 1918, the municipality may then be able to refund them with long term bonds at a rate of interest approximating the investment basis which existed before the outbreak of the war. In the event of their not being able to better themselves in respect to the cost of the capital, a new issue of notes could be issued extending the maturity until the opportunity to borrow on long-time bonds offered."

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[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 1.

This plan coupled with the plan adopted by Portland, Oregon, of issuing its securities in small amounts will tend to place city finances upon a sound and a democratic basis.

The tendency to enlarge the scope of the city's functions, which has been one of the marked features of recent municipal developments, is having a profound influence upon municipal life and especially in the matter of finances and business methods and the form of city government. It has unquestionably been the chief impetus of the movement, first for the commission form of government and then for its later development, the commission-manager form.

There has been no recession of interest in these two forms—no city which has adopted either has so far voted to go back to the old conditions. A strenuous effort to do so was made in one city—Pueblo, Colorado—but the results were not reassuring to the opponents of progress and development, for the commission form received a much bigger majority at the second election than it did at the first.

Buffalo after six years of unremitting effort has finally secured a commission charter and so becomes the largest city in the country—its population is 439,666—to commit its legislative and administrative affairs to a single group of men—thus emphasizing the tendency toward concentration of power and responsibility which has been the encouraging characteristic of the past half dozen years.

Although charter revision has been less general during the past year than in any one of the preceding three or four years, due to the fact that it was so general in these years, and to the further fact that its results were so generally satisfactory, nevertheless it has shown no reaction in the matter of form and content. The larger cities have been particularly busy in preparing and considering new charters. Chicago has a permanent charter commission; New York has taken a similar step; St. Louis has a new charter, which provides a much simpler form with direct legislation features and while not a short ballot instrument, it provides for a greater concentration of authority and responsibility than the old one, which was antiquated, complex and tortuous. Toledo has just approved the federal plan, but it provides a real short ballot, direct legislation and preferential voting. Cleveland defeated certain efforts to change its modern charter adopted a year ago.

What is aptly called the vanishing system—the bicameral form of city government—is to be found in only nine of the largest 50 cities. These cities are Philadelphia, Baltimore, Kansas City, Providence, Louisville, Atlanta, Worcester, Richmond, Virginia, and Cambridge, Massachusetts. In the light of the events of the past five years, and especially of the past two, it would not be much of a hazard to predict that five years hence not one of the larger cities will be risking its business and its future to the evils of a form which affords such abundant opportunities for inefficiency, and waste and mismanagement. Already a long list of the larger cities have remodelled their plans and the others are seriously considering doing so.

Hand in hand with this improvement, and usually just preceding it, has been the movement for municipal home rule, which is daily gaining a firmer hold on public opinion and which in the course of the coming generation is destined to become the settled policy with regard to the relation of the states to the cities. The direct election of federal senators has helped, as has the growth of the sentiment in favor of non-partisanship. The commission form is the embodiment of this latter idea and all the newer charters for the larger cities are based on the same idea and the reports from these communities are generally most encouraging and satisfactory. The question of the relation of political parties to municipal life and activities has not been finally settled, in view of the continued existence of the long ballot in many places, although the sentiment in favor of excluding the consideration of national politics from municipal affairs is well nigh unanimous among students and publicists.

Evidently the commission form of government and the commission-manager plan tread hardly upon somebody's toes, judging from the frequency with which stories are sent out that there is complaint and dissatisfaction in those cities now operating under such forms. In only two cities to date, however, has the dissatisfaction been sufficiently great to secure a sufficient number of signers to a petition to have the question submitted to a vote: Spokane, Washington, and Pueblo, Colorado. The former three years ago defeated a proposition to return to the old form by a larger majority than the new form had received at the first election, and Pueblo in June last voted down a similar proposition four to one.

Some idea of the success of commission government in the nine Iowa cities operating such a plan may be gathered from the figures a short time ago sent to the governor of the state by the auditor. For the first time these cities, in 1913, lived within their income, according to the report.

The federal census has likewise been collecting the figures with regard to the operation of commission government and the results have been equally satisfactory. Of the 69 commission cities covered by the latest government report, 61 were found to be running at less per capita than the average head expense of the 195 metropolitan centers of all classes considered. But even where the expenditures of commission cities are higher than others, it is a generally conceded fact that the taxpayers of the former are getting more for their money than they ever received under the old system. Public improvements are not only numerous under the commission form, but the character of the improvements has been raised. With hardly an exception, the reports from commission-ruled municipalities tell of more efficient and cleaner administration.[3]

William Allen White recently wrote to the Springfield *Republican* to this effect: "I do not believe that the commission form of government is an unqualified success. Neither is human nature an unqualified success. But the commission form does furnish an opportunity for good citizens to get good government if they are willing to work for it. The council form does not furnish us as good a material and the experience of Emporia with the commission form of government on the whole has been more satisfactory to my mind than with the council form of government, although of course every form of government must reflect in a large measure the minds of the citizens that live under it. The commission form encourages good citizenship by making it easy for good citizenship to express itself."

Coincident with the movement for newer and better charters has been one having for its purpose the placing of the finances of the city upon a firmer and more business-like basis. For years and generations a happy-go-lucky plan of raising and spending money has prevailed and very little attention was given to the matter because city taxes and expenditures formed so small a part of the whole—but now the city bulks larger and its needs grow greater and the financial burden of its upkeep becomes heavier and so becomes more evident, and so city finances come into the foreground.

The private individual, firm or corporation, as has so often been pointed out, that does not adjust probable expenditures to probable receipts at the beginning of the business year, is very likely to run up against serious difficulties at the end of it. In the conduct of private affairs generally, allotments of income must of necessity be made as a precaution against deficits. The average head of a family instinctively sets aside a sum for the maintenance of his home, the average housekeeper sets aside certain portions of this sum to meet the various drafts that are certain to be made upon it. In proportion to the care taken in holding expenditures within the allowances made will the business man or the housewife succeed in making ends meet at the close of the year.

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[3] In commenting on this report the *Christian Science Monitor* of Boston says:

"Facts collected by the federal government with regard to the progress of commission rule in municipalities in the United States are far more eloquent than any argument based on theory in favor of the new system or opposed to it. Commission government is still occasionally rejected by communities; in a few instances where it has been adopted the results have not been wholly satisfactory, but speaking generally, increase in the number of places adopting it and growth of satisfaction over its operation have been steady from the beginning. Every year adds new municipalities to the list, and every year shows that the tendency toward its adoption is growing stronger in the large cities."

This, however, has not been the custom in the great majority of American cities, at least until very recent years. The loosest of methods of raising money, appropriating it and expending it have prevailed, not alone in cities but in the states and nation as well. Congress seems to have formed a strong, and an almost unbreakable attachment for annual deficiencies and for annual deficiency bills.

As early as 1900 the National Municipal League began calling public attention to this condition of affairs, attacking the problem from the angle of uniform financial reports and uniform accounting. Since then it has persistently followed up the work with effective assistance of such organizations as the bureaus of municipal research, who have devoted their energies and resources largely to this phase of the city problem.

The demand for the adoption of modern, scientific budgets; the careful estimating of possible expenses and available sources of income as a precedent for the appropriations—is growing in favor. The larger cities like New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore are taking a leadership which means an early accomplishment of greatly needed changes.

New York has made a substantial and significant contribution in the domain of municipal finance, marking a distinct epoch in the development of thought on matters of city finance. Briefly stated it is this: All improvements already authorized are to be paid for by proceeds of 15-year serial bonds, to be retired in 15 annual instalments out of the tax levy. All future improvements (except those of a self-supporting nature) are to be financed as follows: In the first year—one fourth out of the tax levy and three fourths out of the proceeds of 15-year serial bonds. In the second year—half and half. In the third year—three fourths out of the tax levy and one fourth out of the proceeds of the 15-year serial bonds.

In subsequent years, New York will finance all of its permanent improvements (other than those that are self-sustaining) out of its tax levy, thus saving enormously in interest charges. After the last of the 15-year serial bonds will have been retired it will gradually reduce the tremendous debt (approaching a billion dollars), which it has now accumulated.

This straightforward, business-like, modern plan will, for several years to come, mean higher taxes, although eventually it will result in great saving, and "posterity, instead of an inheritance of huge debt will" as the New York bureau of municipal research points out, "receive from this generation unencumbered legacies of splendid municipal improvements."

To meet the temporary increase of taxes, the New York city club has formulated a program of economy which will at the same time result in permanent saving. It involves the abolition of unnecessary offices like those of coroner, the elimination of sinecures, the cutting out of fees and substituting salaries therefor, and generally placing the administrative machinery on the same sound business basis as is involved in the plan of the Board of estimate and apportionment.

This whole incident affords an illuminating illustration of the happy combination of official concern and investigation with volunteer co-operation, which is the mark of modern civic service and one of the most helpful and suggestive phases of present municipal conditions.

An important step in the application of modern methods to city affairs is to be found in the practical development of the merit system. So far as the moderately compensated places are concerned, the system is not only well founded, but the details of its application have been satisfactorily worked out. But with regard to the higher offices, the fight is still on. The events of the past year, however, have been most satisfactory and especially the classification by the New York City commission of the six secretaries to the Board of estimate and apportionment and the application of civil service procedure to higher positions in the municipal service.

Another event of significance was the change of the rules providing that hereafter a first grade clerk is eligible for promotion after one year in the service and a second grade clerk after two years. This shortening of the period of eligibility for promotion will encourage able and ambitious clerks to remain in the service and as the raw material for employees in the higher positions is drafted from these grades such a rule ought to have a good effect and tend effectively to raise the morals of the whole service.

The most far-reaching movement in the civil service of New York is the attempt to standardize duties and to classify positions based upon a description of the duties. The municipal commission is co-operating in this direction with the bureau of standards at Washington, that a sounder classification of the duties will be established. This tendency is general throughout the country and if it results in a sound efficiency record system, it will greatly aid the proper enforcement of the civil service laws and lead to a sound system of promotion, a consideration of the first importance.

The responsiveness of the merit system to the increasing demands for efficiency in administration was the keynote of the annual meeting of the National assembly of civil service commissions in Pueblo, in June. Beginning with competitive scholastic examinations for the appointment of clerks, the system has been extended until it has been made applicable for testing fitness for highly technical and administrative positions other than those of elective officers, heads of departments and the principal assistants of the executive.

The need for placing the whole civil service of the city on a sound basis of non-political honesty and efficiency grows daily, if for no other reason because of the rapid increase in the number of functions assumed. For instance, San Francisco is now successfully operating a street railway and Detroit and Toledo have definitely voted to own and operate theirs.

Both the demand for municipal ownership and that for effective control of privately operated municipal utilities continue unabated. Practically every state (only two, Wyoming and Utah, have no form of control) regulates in some form or another, and with greater or less efficiency, the public utilities. The discussion of whether the regulation should be by state or local commissions continues unabated, although the developments of the year just passing have been on the whole more favorable to state than to local control, even in states like California, where municipal home rule as a general policy is so firmly entrenched. In that particular instance, however, the result is due to the effective administration of the state commission, which has earned for itself an enviable position for courage, fairness and wise public spirit.

An utilities bureau has just been established under Philadelphia's leadership, "to secure fair and reasonable rates to patrons of public companies, to fight frenzied finance and injurious monopoly, to see to it that cities are well represented and well defended in litigation over franchises and alleged rights." These are legitimate and laudable objects. If it is wise, feasible and proper (and it certainly has been shown to be so) for the representatives of street railway, electric light and gas companies to get together in annual conference and to discuss their mutual concerns, then there are equally strong reasons for cities to do the same thing.

Utilities companies are daily realizing that a public utility must have, as *Public Service* puts the case, "the good will of the public; but to get this good will it must deserve it. First of all it must render good service. It must reasonably cover the territory. It must furnish service that is regular and safe for a reasonable rate cheerfully, and willingly, through agents and employees who are competent, courteous and considerate." It might have added with equal propriety, "and it must show a decent regard for public opinion as embodied in public laws and in the rulings of public officials."

The desirability of those engaged in similar lines of work getting together has been amply demonstrated. The usefulness of the National Municipal League depends primarily upon its annual and committee meetings. Trade and professional organizations in great numbers point the same moral—and now the city managers are to get together in conference in Springfield, Ohio, in December, to compare notes and exchange views and experiences. It is to be hoped that they will appreciate the fact that they are part of a country-wide movement for the improvement of city life everywhere therein. There are now an American society of municipal improvements, a League of American municipalities, not to mention sundry special organizations of policemen, firemen, electricians, and general bodies like the National Municipal League.

If it is helpful for a particular group "to get together," it will prove equally helpful if they will get together with other groups in the same line. There certainly should be one big organization of all the officials dealing with municipal problems, serving the cities of the whole country like the League of California municipalities[4] serves the cities of that state. If the city managers will take steps to that end, then the meeting will prove doubly useful.

The principle of the direct primary has become more firmly established in municipal elections than in national elections and has worked more satisfactorily because in so large a number of cases the cities have achieved a comparatively short ballot, at least so far as purely municipal offices are concerned. Local ballots are still entirely too long, however, involving, as they do, the selection of so long a list of county and district officials.

In those cities where the preferential ballot exists, the results have justified its use. The prevailing system, however, in commissioned governed cities is that of the two elections, the preliminary one to choose twice the number of candidates to be chosen at the general election, and the second election designed to select the requisite number from the list chosen at the first election. In the cities where this system has been longest in vogue, the reports are on the whole most satisfactory.

There is very general discussion and quite considerable amount of objection to the direct primaries in connection with state elections, and as a judge of a Chicago court said: "Under present conditions in the great centers of population like the city of Chicago, the direct primary and the Australian ballot, as now constituted, have in effect broken down. One hundred and fifty-one people to be elected next Tuesday, on the same ticket, all printed in precisely the same size type, and all, except the head and tail of the ticket, hidden somewhere in the impenetrable jungle of a ballot which is measured by yards, both in length and breadth."

The Chicago situation does not indicate that either the direct primary or the Australian ballot have broken down. It illustrates and emphasizes the necessity for a shorter ballot. In the first place, there should be a separation of state and national elections from local elections, as prevails in Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts and a number of other states. In the second place, the number of officials chosen at elections should be radically cut down. The Australian ballot and the direct primary cannot be said to have failed until they have been applied to conditions that make their fair application and use feasible.

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[4] NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 603.

The most significant development in city planning has been the number of calls for competitive designs for the plan of a city, such as the Dublin competition, or for portions of cities, such as the Richmond dock competition in California, the competition for a civic neighborhood in Chicago. Another important development has been the movement in New York City to impose proper restrictions as to the height of buildings and their arrangement on building plots. Emphasis is to be laid on this movement not so much because it is a step in the right direction, as for the reason that the opposition to the plan has been much less than expected, indicating that the people in New York and in the country generally are beginning to realize that the long cherished right of the individual to use his property as he pleases must be subordinated to the larger public interest. This is a lesson which Americans have been somewhat slow to learn, and it is a principle which seems to me fundamental in city planning.

There seems to be a great difference of opinion among social workers as to the effect of the war on social problems. The opinion of one is that "Already now civilization stops—stops dead. . . . Religion, philosophy, literature, painting, and, chief of all perhaps, science, with its torch at the head of our human hosts, are suddenly flung backward; they become of no moment. Who wants to know about Immanence? Who cares to hear what Bergson and Eucken think? Who bothers about books and pictures? Who is ready to endow a laboratory or listen to the chemist and the biologist?" And who, a Unitarian clergyman asks in quoting the above, "cares a fig about the social movement?" Our own Jane Addams declares "that all is out of joint, out of character. Human sensibilities were more acute when this war began than ever before. The comradeship, the friendliness between nations had been brought upon a basis of mutual understanding further than ever before. All organized social welfare activities are put back for years," she said. "We have to work up public opinion anew."

On the other hand, we have Dr. Graham Taylor of the Chicago Commons, that other Chicago pioneer social laboratory, declaring as a result of his personal observation:

"That first week in August, which threatened Europe with the greatest destruction which has ever overtaken its civilization, was signalized by the most constructive, or reconstructive, legislation ever enacted in any one week throughout the long history of the British Parliament. And it did so in the rush of its gigantic defensive and offensive preparations for war. Although all these measures are temporary provisions to meet the emergency demanding immediate relief from the present or possible disasters of war, yet they cannot fail to affect profoundly the social legislation and administration which had already become the permanent policy of the British empire and of its county and municipal governments."

The obvious reply to Miss Addams' lament (and we all deeply sympathize with the feeling which gives rise to it) is that the very greatness of the European cataclysm will emphasize the need for even greater social and civic effort.

There is an increasing conviction that social and civic problems of great magnitude will follow in the footsteps of the war. The commissioner general of immigration holds the opinion that the natural thing to expect after peace is declared again is a quickened flow of immigrants to the United States. If the war is serious and causes general business depression in the countries which it affects, increased numbers of the working classes will have to seek opportunities in this country.

Apart from the special problems incident to the war, the present indications are that the coming year, like the one just closing, will be characterized by great social activity. The social center movement is gaining headway. The business bodies are coming in line because, as the Hoboken board of trade said in its November *Bulletin*, "There is something abroad, an irresistible social impulse, which is tending to promote the useful virtues, to encourage thrift, initiative, industry, co-operation, civic pride, and all those qualities of mind and will that make communities sound and prosperous."

The number of municipal social welfare departments is increasing. Dayton has one established under its new charter. Chicago has a department of public welfare, so have Denver, Duluth, Grand Rapids, Kansas City (one of the earliest), Los Angeles, Cleveland, St. Joseph, Missouri.

Of the more important happenings of the past year along the line of suppressing the social evil, James B. Reynolds, counsel for the American social hygiene association puts first the state-wide investigation of the vice problem in Massachusetts, Wisconsin and Maryland. Numerous commissions have investigated the intimate relations of vice to the physical and moral welfare of their respective communities. A result of these investigations has been the disclosure of interurban relations in vice.

An insistent demand for the safeguarding of young women at the Panama-Pacific exposition has been made by individuals and organizations throughout the country. This is significant of the aroused determination of cities better to protect young women under conditions of unusual danger to their normal welfare. Previous expositions in this country have been the occasion for the debauchery of young women because of the "wide open" town believed to be essential for the enjoyment of the heterogeneous crowd attending these expositions. This debauchery has been caused not through positive official dereliction, but because the need of positive protective measures was not realized and the public did not demand such measures. Now the awakened public conscience exacts that exposition authorities shall not tolerate questionable shows and shall protect the moral safety of women visitors.

Surely a year which has brought out efforts such as have been described shows that our American life is headed straight. That we are beginning to think in terms of the community rather than in terms of the individual is a great gain; that we are not overlooking individual regeneration while we are improving our systems of government is encouraging; that we are working for an education that is a preparation for life, not life in some imaginary future, but as it exists now, and about; that we are building the foundations for an efficient democracy—these are the big things and may be depended upon to build up not only a barrier against the evils of unrestrained and widespread war, but a stable and enduring prosperity, that will be the common heritage of the whole people.

EVOLUTION IN CITY CHARTER MAKING

BY WILLIAM DUDLEY FOULKE[1]

Richmond, Indiana

FIFTEEN years ago the National Municipal League, at its meeting in Columbus, adopted a municipal program embracing certain proposed constitutional amendments and a model charter.

This year, a committee charged with that work will offer for our discussion a new municipal program, better fitted, as we believe, to the present exigencies of our municipal life. During these 15 years, changes have been taking place in the popular conception of what a model charter ought to be. There has been a constant evolution of public opinion in this respect, characterized by certain definite tendencies which we will do well to consider to-day in comparing the model which will be offered by our committee with the model adopted by our association 15 years ago.

The first and most vital of these tendencies is that in favor of giving cities larger powers and greater freedom in framing and amending their own charters and administering their own government.

The second tendency is the drift away from the old model of a city charter based upon the analogies of our state and national governments, a model which provided for a legislative body (generally of two chambers) and an independent executive, elected by the people with complicated checks and balances which ineffectually sought to prevent particular officials from doing mischief, but were actually more effective in preventing them from doing what was needful or desirable. This drift has been toward the more sensible system of conferring fuller powers and fixing more definite responsibility upon the particular individual managing the government or some branch thereof.

The third tendency is shown in a fuller appreciation of the need of experts for the management of complicated city affairs and the demand that these experts and all subordinate to them shall be selected upon proper tests of their administrative qualifications and without reference to any mere political considerations.

The fourth tendency, closely allied to the above, is the desire that those who represent the electorate in governing the city shall actually represent the will of their constituents as to city affairs, that they shall be as free as possible from the influences of state and national politics and for this reason that they shall be nominated if practicable either at open primaries, or by a preferential vote, elected at a special city election upon a short, non-partisan ballot and subject after election to more direct popular control by means of such measures as the initiative, referendum and recall. Let us consider these tendencies and the reasons for them somewhat more in detail.

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[1] Annual address of the President of the National Municipal League, Baltimore, November 18, 1914.

First, Self-Government.

There are two ways of looking at a city government, one is the legal and artificial way and the other is the natural way. According to the legal way of thinking, a city government is the mere creature of the state. According to Chancellor Kent it is a public or municipal corporation, invested with subordinate legislative powers, for local purposes and subject to the control of the legislature of the state. In the words of Judge Dillon, "Cities possess no powers or faculties not conferred upon them by the law which creates them or other statutes applicable to them."

According to this notion the whole life of a municipal corporation is infused into it by the state. It has no vitality of its own. It must do exactly what the state permits or directs; its very form is imposed upon it by the legislature; it must have a mayor, a council of one or two chambers as the state directs, and such and such administrative offices and such and such powers which it must exercise in such and such a manner just as the legislature prescribes and not otherwise.

Now an organization which has its form and character thus impressed upon it by an outside body is more like a plaster cast than a living organism and whatever life it has is stunted. Just as a man's individuality is dwarfed if in every act he must perform the will of a master, so the individuality of a city is necessarily stunted if in all that it does it is the mere creature and servant of the state. In organic life all normal and healthy growth comes from within. It is the development of that which we know as the life principle, and while the sunshine, the air and the nutriment are supplied from the outside world, yet the power of transmuting these into the thing which grows and develops and becomes a new form and living substance,—*that* comes from this internal vital principle. It is more apt to be cramped than stimulated by outside interference and control and unless it can have a certain liberty of action, all growth is impossible.

In a general way, a city, like a man, can be trusted to do that which is for its own benefit more certainly than any outside instrumentality can be trusted to do good to it against its will. In the long run we can more safely trust liberty than autocracy.

Thus we come to the second view of the city, that it is an independent organism that ought to develop in its own way and according to the laws of its own being. We must remember that historically this is the natural order of things. It was always the local community, village, town or city, that existed first and it was only by the union of these local communities that states and nations were afterwards developed. The people who came together inspired by a common purpose, building their dwellings and conducting their affairs in common, thus formed the first natural political unit and when the state came in afterwards from the union of cities, towns and villages and the tributary surrounding territory of each, it was because the state had greater power rather than because it had greater reason on its side that it contrived and promulgated the doctrine that the city was its mere creature and servant.

For the general purposes of state government of course, cities should be subordinate. The general laws of the state must be enforced. In its relation to foreign states and countries the city should do what the state directs. But so far as its local affairs are concerned, the state as a matter of right has no business at all to interfere.

History justifies also the generalization that with cities, as with individuals and with states, the condition of the largest liberty is the condition of the highest development. The most illustrious examples of city government and city life were found in those cities which were absolutely independent of state control. The ancient cities of Greece, for instance, Sparta, Argos, Corinth, Thebes and, most illustrious of all, Athens, owed no allegiance to any higher political power. So it was with the great cities of the Middle Ages, with Florence, Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Amalfi and the free cities of Spain and Germany, which were the centers of dawning liberty in a dark age. It was here that modern popular representation had its beginnings. In Carthage, too, and in imperial Rome, the city had no sovereign above her. She was herself the sovereign over subject lands. These have come down to us as the most illustrious examples in past ages of excellence in city life. We can hardly doubt that the independence of these cities was one of the reasons for their excellence and the instances are far more rare where cities under the absolute control of a higher sovereignty attained any great pre-eminence in power, prosperity or general beneficence.

Even to-day our cities are more naturally political units than our states are. When I pass across the line, four miles from my own home, which divides Ohio from Indiana, I observe little if any difference in the character of the land or the inhabitants. People look at things in much the same way, they have the same institutions, the same habits of life, the same ideals, the same industries. But when I take my own city and compare it with the rural districts around it there is a great deal of difference. The city man looks at things in a different way from the farmer; his methods of life are different; his house is different; his street differs from the country road and is built, maintained and regulated in a different way; there is a difference as to fire and police protection, his amusements are different.

Although there need be no antagonism between country people and city people, there is still a natural union of interests and aims that binds city people together and separates them from those who do not live in cities. Therefore, the city, so far as it can, ought to settle its own affairs in its own way. The countryman should not try to manage city business any more than the city man should try to regulate country life, and yet in America the country representatives in the legislature often do regulate city affairs of which they have little knowledge and in which they should have little concern.

A city is a natural political unit that ought to have the right to adopt just the kind of a charter it wants, to form its government in just the way it pleases and regulate all its purely local affairs just as it desires, provided this does not interfere with the general welfare of the whole state.

Now the changes in our recent state constitutions show that the trend of modern thought has been toward this greater independence of our city governments. In 1899, at the time of our first municipal program, the constitution of Missouri had given to St. Louis the power to frame its own charter but had required that this charter should provide for a mayor and a two chambered council with other limitations as well as, important details of procedure. California had allowed cities of more than 3,500 inhabitants to frame their charters provided the state legislature approved. Such charters "except in municipal affairs" were to be controlled by general law. The state of Washington had followed with similar provision as well as Minnesota, at the time our first municipal program was promulgated.

In this program of 1899 it was provided that any city with a population of 25,000 or more might frame a charter subject to the constitution and to general state laws as well as to such special laws as were either ratified by the city council or else passed by two thirds of the state legislature including three fourths of all the members from districts outside of the city. But in such charter it was required that there should be a council and a mayor both elected by the people, the mayor to be chief executive, appointing and removing all heads of departments except the controller who was appointed by the council. The city was to have home rule provided it adopted a charter of this particular kind.

Now under this model charter of ours no commission form of government could have been framed at all nor any city manager form of government such as perhaps our committee will propose at this session. The commission form was a subsequent development which our League did not then have in mind and which originated in Galveston less than two years after our model charter was promulgated.

Since 1899 the tendency toward greater liberty for cities has been further extended in the constitutions of other states, of Colorado in 1902, of Oklahoma in 1907, of Michigan in 1908, of Oregon in 1910, etc., until there are now 12 states whose constitutions allow more or less home rule for cities as well as a number of other states where the option is given to adopt a prescribed commission or manager form of city government.

In this current of legislation toward securing greater power of home rule for cities there is indeed an eddy and that is the control over public utilities recently given to state commissions. These public utilities frequently extend beyond a single city and sometimes include a number of cities or an entire section of the state. In this latter case they are necessarily under state control. But where they affect utilities within a single city, they sometimes interfere with home rule and restrict the powers of the municipal government to control or to acquire these public utilities even on terms which are satisfactory to the city and the owners of the franchise. Thus in Wisconsin all franchises must be indeterminate and can be ended only on one condition, that the city shall purchase the plant of the utility at a valuation fixed by the state commission. All other methods of acquisition are forbidden. In California the state commission may refuse its consent to a sale. In New York and New Jersey the grant of city franchises must be approved by the state commission.

Now this is a much better form of state control than that exercised by the legislature. It is administrative rather than political and on the whole it may be salutary, since it largely eliminates the speculative element which has led the owners of public utilities to exploit their franchises and privileges. But it does restrict the city government and cripples those activities which prepare cities for ownership and operation of public utilities.

But in spite of this eddy in the stream, the tendency toward greater home rule is unmistakable and we are reminded by it that more liberty is now required for cities than we thought necessary in 1899. Such restrictions as we then made should now be removed. Therefore, in the constitutional amendments which will be considered at this session there will be no condition that cities must have a population of 25,000 before they can frame a charter and no limitation whatever as to the form of the charter which may be adopted.

By our model charter in 1899 it was provided that the mayor might be removed, after a hearing, by the governor of the state. Now it is the city council which removes the manager and the city electorate which must remove the council, the right of the state to control a city official being thus taken away.

But there is no particular in which the tendency of modern thought toward the greater independence of cities will be more clearly expressed in our proposed model charter than in the increased powers which are to be conferred by the constitution of the state upon the cities therein.

Cities may not only perform and furnish all public services, but they may hold and dispose of property either within or without their corporate limits for corporate purposes and for the protection and preservation of public improvements, and they are to have not only the power of local government, but the power to do whatever they shall deem necessary and proper for the safety, health, welfare and general convenience of their inhabitants.

Unless this last clause can be construed away by false judicial interpretation, it invests the city with the very fullest powers to do all things which a city needs to do.

Second, Responsible Government.

The second tendency is the drift of public opinion away from the old federal model of a legislature of two chambers and an independent executive—a government of divided powers and complicated checks and balances—toward a simpler and more responsible government.

It was very natural that our cities should have adopted this federal plan, founded upon the analogies of all the other governments to which our people had been accustomed. If the model was a good one for the nation and the state, why not for the city? For a long time we considered that our federal and state governments were the best possible in this imperfect world. It is only of late years that we begin to observe their defects, to see that they are not flexible enough to respond easily to public opinion and that the division of authority and the checks and balances more frequently paralyze power for good than for evil and greatly promote political intrigue.

We are beginning to realize some of the advantages of parliamentary government such as prevails in Canada and in England where there is one man at the head, responsible to the representative body and removable at once whenever he fails to give satisfaction. We realize the advantages of the simpler and shorter ballot which the parliamentary system allows and we see how much better English and German cities have been managed under a similar system of responsible government, than our own cities with the rigid and cumbrous machinery of the federal plan. Therefore, our people had begun even before our model charter of 1899, to concentrate more and more power in a single hand, that of the mayor of the city, elected by the whole body of the people and naturally considered their representative.

Our first model charter, responding to this idea, provided that he should be the chief executive with power to appoint, and remove all heads of departments (except the controller) as well as all subordinate officers and employees, subject, however, to civil service rules. He was to have a limited veto power and authority to make investigations and it was his duty to submit the annual budget which council might reduce but not increase.

But we have seen that since that model charter was promulgated, immense changes have taken place in charter making. In many cities both mayor and council are abolished and instead of these, five or more commissioners or heads of departments have been elected by the people at large and the commission thus composed has been invested with full legislative powers. That is, each commissioner is responsible for his own department and the whole commission is responsible for legislation. The plan is very simple; there are no checks and balances but full publicity is secured. The ballot is shortened and simplified and more intelligent voting has resulted. Now that some 400 cities have adopted the system and scarcely any have returned to the old plan it must be conceded that commission government is relatively a great improvement on what went before.

Much of this improvement, however, is due not so much to the new system as to an aroused public spirit, evidenced by the fact that the citizens were willing to revolutionize their whole form of government to obtain reforms which they considered necessary. Commission government is still far from perfect. We hear of the election of unskilled men for heads of departments, of log-rolling among the commissioners and quarrels between them, and such conflicts of authority as occurred in Des Moines where the commission appointed and retained a chief of police who was insubordinate to the commissioner who had charge of the police department.

And last year a third system was introduced, the manager plan, which has now spread to about a dozen cities including Dayton, Springfield and Sandusky in the state of Ohio. While we have not yet had sufficient experience with it to determine definitely what its results will be, yet there is good ground to believe that at least for cities that have been able to eliminate the boss and the ring, it will offer a more efficient form of government than the commission itself. It follows not only many of the analogies of responsible parliamentary government, but also most of the analogies of our large business corporations. A representative body which we may call either a council or a commission employs a manager,—just as the directors of a bank or a railway employ a president and somewhat in the way that a parliament chooses a prime minister—a manager, who, although he may not have the dignity of mayor or governor, is to be the sole agent of the council through whom that body acts and responsible to it for the entire administration of the city.

By the program of 1899 the responsibility was imposed upon a mayor elected by the people. Now the responsibility is imposed upon a manager who is appointed and may be removed by the council. The council itself or any member thereof is responsible to the electorate and may be removed, let us say, by the recall, a measure which was not provided for in our program of 1899.

Thus do we seek to secure administrative responsibility. We do this, however, not by constitutional provision or by general law, to be forced upon the city, whether it will or no, but by a model charter which we recommend for its adoption.

Third, Expert Administration.

The third tendency in the drift of public opinion is toward a fuller appreciation of the need of experts and a greater use of them in the management of city affairs. With this goes the demand that these experts and all who are subordinate to them shall be selected upon proper and, if possible, competitive tests of their administrative abilities and without reference to mere political considerations.

The general trend of modern times is toward greater efficiency; efficiency in war; efficiency in industrial matter and efficiency in government. The commission form as well as this manager plan has been devised mainly on account of its power to give greater efficiency to administration by unifying and simplifying executive work. But the supreme need of city government for securing this efficiency is that each department as well as the whole city administration shall have not a politician but an expert at its head and that it shall be filled with subordinates who have given proof of their qualifications (that is, of their actual or prospective efficiency) by means of competitive tests. The reasons for the need of experts in city government have been so fully discussed at the former meetings of the League and in the pages of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW that there is no need to repeat the argument here. Let us merely discuss the measures by which this expert management may be best secured.

The city manager himself ought essentially to be an expert in city management, though not a specialist in any particular department of city administration. The cities of Germany point out the way to secure this expert service. City management is there a profession. Men can even be educated for it in special schools. There are schools of this kind, for instance, in Cologne and Düsseldorf. And with or without this special instruction there is a corps of men who pursue this city management as their life vocation. They begin in one of the smaller cities; if successful, they are called to a larger place and then to one still larger until they reach the top, just as men are there promoted in the consular service and transferred from one country to another, beginning at unimportant places and gradually going up the ladder.

Now we must adopt the same system for our cities. A mayor chosen for political reasons is generally no fit head for a city administration. Moreover, if a city cannot choose a manager except from among its own citizens it is very commonly impossible to secure good administrative talent. Many of our smaller cities have no men of the necessary ability among their citizens and if the choice is limited to these the manager will generally be appointed for some personal, local or political reason quite apart from skill in administration. To get the best administrator the city ought to have the whole world to draw from. Often it will secure the best results if it adopts the German plan and advertises throughout the country for a manager, stating the duties of the office, the qualifications demanded and the salary offered. Then let the applicants present their credentials and show their respective qualifications and experience and let the best man be chosen. This will result in time here as it has resulted in Germany in men being specially trained for the purpose and devoting their lives to it. When this is done, we shall have the highest efficiency attainable. At present we can only make a beginning. We may do this by providing that the choice of city manager shall not be limited to the residents of the city or the state and we may call attention to the fact that the German plan for selecting a local manager has been highly successful. We may add that, where political methods prevail and a local manager could not be free from local influences, there would be advantages in selecting a man who is not a resident.

So much for the position of manager. It should next be provided that at the head of each department of the city there should be a director, that the director of the department of law shall be a lawyer, the director of the department of health a sanitary engineer or member of the medical profession, the director of public works an engineer, the director of education a teacher, the director of public safety and welfare a man who has had administrative experience and the director of public finance a man who has had experience in banking, accounts and financial matters or, in each case, the man must have rendered active service in the same department in that or some other city.

These directors should be appointed by the city manager and should be removable by him at any time after a public hearing.

All subordinate officers and employees should be selected by competitive tests. A civil service board of three members is to be appointed by the council. This is the one place which is not under control of the manager because, if the manager could control this board and thus arbitrarily appoint the subordinate employees, his power might be unlimited to select whomsoever he might desire and thus to turn the administrative service into a political machine. The administration of the civil service law must be independent. By that law men are appointed automatically as the result of competitive tests. This is the only way to secure permanently freedom from politics and an efficient service. There is no need to argue again the desirability of civil service provisions. This has been done hundreds of times and the experience of the civil service law everywhere has justified its provisions.

The competitive system for administrative officers ought, indeed, to be part of the general policy of every state applicable to the state government as well as to every municipality therein, even though the city charter does not provide for it, just as laws against corruption, municipal and otherwise, are a proper part of the code of every state. Considered in this light it might even have been wise to provide that the civil service commission should be appointed by state authority to keep it independent from local politics. It has even been proposed to make the place of civil service commissioner depend upon competitive tests. The proposed charter will not go so far as that, but it was felt that the civil service board must be independent of the manager who has otherwise entire control over the administration. The term of the members is to be six years, one member going out every two years and members can only be removed by a four-fifths vote of the council after written charges, notice and public hearing.

While it is provided that the classified service need not include the directors or heads of departments, yet even here, the city may include them if it desire and competitive tests (based largely upon credentials and past experience) may be used to determine appointments. For one, I believe that this too will be generally done at some future time and will be made a mandatory requirement.

The civil service provisions should correspond to the best models of state and city civil service laws, both for appointments, promotions and removals and it should also be provided that this civil service and efficiency board may make investigations concerning the general condition of the public service of the city. This power has been one of the means by which the Chicago civil service commission has revealed abuses and greatly promoted efficiency methods and economy in the entire service of Chicago and it is confidently believed that civil service boards may be made of equal value elsewhere.

There are other provisions in this model charter designed to secure greater efficiency. According to the program of 1899 the number for the council was to be not less than 9 nor more than 50 elected from the city at large; now it is to be not less than 5 nor more than 25. It is realized that there is greater efficiency in a smaller body. Perhaps even five is not necessary in all the smaller cities. In order to preserve the independence of the manager and the administrative department it is provided that any interference on the part of a councilman with the administration shall be deemed a misdemeanor.

Fourth, Rule of the People.

The fourth general tendency of public opinion is to adopt measures which will require those who represent the electorate in governing a city to carry out the will of their constituents as to city affairs. Such representatives should, therefore, be free from the influences of state and national politics and should be nominated if practicable at open primaries or by a preferential vote; elected at a special city election upon a short, non-partisan ballot and subject after election to direct popular control by such measures as the initiative, referendum and recall.

The principle that a city election should be separate from a state or national election so as to keep city issues distinct, is now, I think, all but universally conceded. That the ballot should be without party designation is also pretty generally maintained by those who have made a study of city affairs. There is also a strong drift of opinion toward open primary elections for the nomination of candidates in place of the old convention system, which not only has the vice of being a development of state and national party organizations and therefore inapplicable to city government, but is a system particularly liable to intrigue and manipulation, leading to the nomination of candidates who represent neither their party nor the general electorate. It may well be questioned how far primary elections can do away with these latter evils, but public opinion seems to be in favor of trying the primary system, especially in city elections. In some places, candidates are nominated either upon the petitions of a certain number of voters or by a deposit of a sum of money to be returned to the depositor if he polls a certain percentage of the vote cast. Then if none of the candidates for a certain office receive a majority at the first election, a second election is held between the two candidates for that office who stand highest at the first.

But a more convenient and simpler plan appears to be the preferential ballot by which the voter designates his first choice, his second choice and perhaps his third or subsequent choices. If there is no majority of first choice votes, the second choice votes are added and if they too give no majority then the third or other choices. This plan has been successfully tried at Grand Junction, Colorado, and in a number of other cities. It eliminates the undoubted evils which exist where a mere plurality candidate is chosen, removes the need of having two elections, and gives fuller expression than any other method to the desires of the electors in cases where there is only one man to be chosen for a single office.

But where a whole representative body is to be chosen there is another method of securing more accurate representation than we can get either by the system of ward representation, so fruitful of small ward politics, or by a ticket at large where minority representation (so necessary for the watchful observation of city business) is altogether excluded. This other method is the system of proportional representation.

Up to this time proportional representation has made little progress in American communities, but elsewhere it has been used with success, notably in nine of the cantons of Switzerland and in all its most important cities; in various representative bodies in Sweden, Denmark, Belgium, Finland, the Union of South Africa, Transvaal and Tasmania, in Hamburg and certain communal councils in Baden, Oldenburg and Bavaria as well as in other places. It is objected that the system is complicated and confusing, but it has not been found so in the places where it has been applied. Some years ago in one of the principal cities of Switzerland I asked whether the people were satisfied and the answer was, how could they fail to be satisfied when under it every man had what representation he was entitled to.

Our municipal program of 1899 gave to cities the option of adopting proportional representation. This is probably as far as we can go to-day. In respect to proportional representation as well as the initiative and recall, and even as to the referendum on general legislative questions, it seems to many that it is more important that the city's own independence and liberty of action should be secured than that any of these devices, however excellent, should be forced upon it against its will.

There is no time to enter into a discussion of the merits of the initiative, referendum and recall further than to mark the drift of public sentiment in the direction of these measures and to observe that among the communities, both state and municipal, where they have been adopted there is little disposition to repeal them. There seems to be a common opinion that the referendum is a necessary safeguard as to charter amendments, to bond issues and grants of franchises. The charter is the constitution of a city and all changes in a constitution ought to be specifically submitted to the people. The abuses which have attended bond issues and franchise grants in the past, appear to indicate that if a reasonable percentage of the electors desires an opportunity for the voters to determine whether bonds should be issued, or a franchise should be granted, it ought to be given. In other cases these measures may well be optional with each city.

It is said that the recall is likely to lead to the selection of an inferior class of men, that a man of high character and independence will not take public office from which he may be removed by the people at any time. This argument is not without force, but there is compensation in the fact that even if the representative body is composed of somewhat inferior men they will represent their constituents a great deal better than under the old system. The recall at least affords a remedy for every flagrant case of misconduct or misrepresentation.

There are other provisions which every good charter should contain but which time forbids me to discuss. The prohibition, for instance, against granting exclusive privileges or perpetual franchises to private corporations, the debt limit and the manner in which profitable public utilities can be excluded from its provisions, the uniform system of accounts and the financial reports to the state fiscal officer and a number of provisions on other subjects. The questions, however, which I have discussed seem to be the most prominent and vital of those upon which public opinion has so far ripened that they can be dealt with in a model charter to-day.

It will be seen from these observations that our present proposed municipal program is substantially a report of progress and not a finality, and it ought to be clearly understood that no model amendments nor charter can ever be proposed by anybody with the idea that they will be universally applicable and final. In almost every state and in almost every city there will be found even to-day the need of modifying these provisions, of omitting some and adding to others. They must be regarded as a series of suggestions in charter making, to be adopted, rejected or modified, in whole or in part as local conditions may require. Indeed, the very thing which it is most necessary to guard against is that insistence upon uniformity which has been the blight of all general laws for the incorporation of cities.

It will be seen that the League's committee has been reasonably conservative, even in the progressive measures it recommends. It has not sought to incorporate things which may be ultimately desirable in city charters but which are not yet sufficiently adapted to our habits of thought to ensure their speedy acceptance or successful operation to-day. We want to follow in the development of these city organisms, the general and orderly course of nature. Let it be "first the blade, then the ear, and after that the full corn in the ear." Let it be the sowing and ripening of the normal harvest all in due time, not the mushroom growth which attains full maturity to-day and shrivels to-morrow.

There are many analogies between city government, as we would seek to develop it, and the growth of a tree. Few objects in nature are more admirable or imposing than these sovereigns of the forests and the fields, spreading their genial shade upon the turf and enriching the landscape with their grace and majesty; and in the world of government, a well-ordered city should be like a tree, deep rooted in the soil of public opinion, drawing its nutriment from this mother earth through the thousand filaments furnished by popular elections, collecting them at first into a larger group in the shape of a representative council, then into a single trunk from which all administrative functions spring, then dividing into the branches of the various executive departments, subdividing again into bureaus, and offices with their individual subordinates, until it bears the leafage and fruitage of good government and public beneficence.

ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERTS IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENTS

BY A. LAWRENCE LOWELL[1]
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AFTER what you have heard, I am afraid what I have to say is rather dry, and I can only console myself by considering that dried fruit keeps better than fresh fruit.

My only reason for supposing that this subject will be interesting to you is that it is interesting to me. It has been the habit in all ages for men to speculate about what some extraordinary person from a distant clime would think if he came to visit us. If, for instance, Alexander de Tocqueville, who wrote about America 100 years ago, should return, what changes would he find in our civilization? He would notice that we were very much larger in numbers, but he would notice a great many other things besides. He would observe that the characteristic, which began with the pioneer on the Atlantic seaboard and gradually went westward,—that quality by which every man had to be "a jack of all trades" in every kind of occupation,—had practically disappeared. He would notice that no longer did any man expect to be his own farmer, his own hunter, his own carpenter, his own lawyer, and perhaps his own doctor. The pioneer man must be all those things. The people have developed from that type of life. Our country has become like the Europe that he knew, inasmuch as the occupations of men are far more varied and far more specialized than they were when he visited America. He came not very far from the time when cotton mills and railroads began; and at that time any successful merchant was good enough to put at the head of a factory or of a railroad. Now no one thinks of taking charge of a railroad or a factory unless he has had experience in those fields. These occupations are just as specialized as they are in Europe. De Tocqueville would make another observation if he came. He would say: "In the industries you have men with special training; men who are not only experts in the highest sense, but who have been carefully educated in schools for the purpose; and, in fact, there is no country where there are better schools for special training than here,—law schools, medical schools, schools for engineers; but while you are doing that in your industrial life, you are not doing it in your government. You are not using experts in the public service to the same extent as every other civilized people in the world." He would go one step further. He would observe—and it is a common saying in the United States—that of all the kinds of government in this country the least successful has been the government of great cities. He would also observe that it is in those very cities that we use the expert the least; and, perhaps, being de Tocqueville, he would see some connection between those facts.

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[1] President, Harvard University. Address delivered at the twentieth annual meeting of the National Municipal League, Baltimore, November 19.

What do we mean by an "expert"? I think we can define an expert simply enough. An expert is a man who by his knowledge and experience in any particular subject is better qualified to deal with that subject than people who have not had such knowledge or experience. You will notice I am specially making the definition very broad, and I am not confining it to those things which we commonly consider the subject of expert knowledge. We all know there are certain classes of experts which we have long respected. We do not want men appointed as judges who are not lawyers; nor do we want in public hospitals men who are not physicians. Those are the two oldest professions that we know; but there are new professions constantly developing. To-day we recognize that we should not employ an inexperienced man to build a bridge. We require an engineer. We know that he must calculate the stresses and strains on every piece of steel in that bridge or the bridge will not stand. But there are many other things that only the expert can do well. To-day we never think of putting a man in charge of a railroad who has not been trained in railroad work. Take banking—take manufacturing of any kind—take anything that you please in the industrial world. We put an expert in charge of it. What do we do in our cities? In most cities any man may be superintendent of streets. Mr. Eshleman has told us that the city fathers should be as harmless as doves and as wise as serpents. We shall all agree that the history of our city governments has not been one of extreme harmlessness or wisdom; and it is about the wisdom of the serpent that I want to speak to you to-night.

Granted that we use experts everywhere else, why do we not use them in our government to the extent that we might? For a very simple reason. We are afraid of them. We are afraid that if the expert is put in charge, the people will lose control over him. We have always been afraid of the expert; and it is worth while sometimes to recall the fact, well known to every student of history, that democracies until this last one hundred years have always been short-lived institutions. I believe that this is because democracies have never known how to use those expert qualities which are necessary for efficiency. Democracies may be honest, they may be noble, but they cannot be efficient without experts; and without efficiency, nothing is this world can endure.

The kind of expert that we need in a city is not merely the expert lawyer as a corporation counsel; it is not merely the expert physician as the health officer; not even the expert engineer as the builder of roads and bridges; but also the expert administrator. It is the man who knows how a great administrative body must be handled, who knows how to deal with the vast amount of business to be transacted; for this cannot be done by anybody who happens to get the votes. It must be done by an expert. The administration of a large city is one of the most complicated kinds of business which this country has to manage. It requires a knowledge of administrative machinery. It needs a man who knows how to organize bodies of men so that their work shall run smoothly, efficiently and economically.

How is it done in other places? I will not refer to the continent of Europe, because they are in the habit of using bureaucratic organizations. I will take England which is just as much a democracy as our country, except that the symbol of the state is a crown rather than a flag.

It is very interesting to go about the English boroughs, and see how they are managed. Everywhere you find a series of shams. The English government is full of shams. Nobody does quite the work he is supposed to do. For instance, the chancellor of the exchequer is not a chancellor and has nothing to do with the exchequer. There is a very good illustration of such a sham in the trial at Ipswich in Pickwick. When Mr. Pickwick is brought before Judge Nupkins and asks why he was brought there, Judge Nupkins whispers to his clerk, "Must I tell him?"

"I think you had better, sir," whispers the clerk.

"An information has been sworn before us," said the magistrate, "that it is apprehended you are going to fight a duel, and that the other man Tupman is your aider and abetter in it. Therefore—eh, Mr. Jinks?"

"Certainly, sir."

"Therefore I call upon you both to—I think that's the course, Mr. Jinks."

"Certainly, sir."

"To—do—what, Mr. Jinks?" said the magistrate pettishly.

"To find bail, sir."

"Yes. Therefore I call upon you both—as I was about to say when I was interrupted by my clerk,—to find bail." That is hardly an exaggeration. It is what happens every day in England. Men are constantly being guided by experts, and purporting to do the thing themselves as Judge Nupkins did. He did not think that he really was interrupted by the clerk; he thought it was part of the clerk's business to tell him what to do. That is one of the commonest, the most essential, features of English local government. The justice of the peace is a country gentleman, and employs a clerk who knows the law. I remember a case of a justice of the peace who was in the habit of asking the clerk whether the sentence ought to be three months or six months. To some extent that principle runs through the whole administration of the English government. The English city is nominally governed by a borough council, composed partly of aldermen, and partly of councillors, the aldermen being elected for a longer term. But how is the government really carried on? Matters that are to come before the council are first considered by a committee. Behind the council, behind the committee, stands the expert. The day before the committee meets, the expert goes with its chairman over the work to be done, and the chairman generally follows his advice. A good chairman is and ought to be very much influenced by the opinion of the expert permanent official. After the conference the chairman practically puts through the committee matters which he and the expert have agreed upon the day before. The work is mainly done at the head of the table. I remember asking a vigorous expert what would happen if the committee insisted on doing something that he did not approve. He said he should tell them that he could not take the responsibility for it; that they must pass a vote ordering it and put it on record. He said they would never assume the responsibility in such a case. They are not Americans, they are English.

Wherein lies the power of the expert? You do not see him; you know nothing about him. The expert attends the meetings of the committee, not, as a rule, those of the council. You do not see him because it is understood that the expert is not to speak in public except at meetings of a technical society, such as a meeting of engineers. He never appears before the public, he never takes public credit, or blame. The members of the council take the credit and blame. The experts stand behind them and carry on the work of the city, subject to the control of the council. They are, as a rule, the mainspring of the administration and the council is the balance wheel. I remember very well in Glasgow, many years ago, one of the officials telling me that he did not think the city would suffer if the council never met again,—meaning that the town was managed by the experts. I went to see two members of the borough council—one of them was a man of business in a small way, and of limited capacity. In talking to him I said something about the experts, to which he replied that they would be sorry to be in the hands of their experts. He was, although he did not know it. The other, a man who was of much larger mold, remarked that the quality of their government really depends upon the excellence of their expert officials; and it obviously did.

But you must control the expert. I am one of those who believe that the best results in every undertaking can be brought about only by a combination of the expert and the layman. I do not care what subject you are dealing with, if you do not have an expert on the one side, and a board representing the public on the other, the management is not likely to be permanently satisfactory. A railroad company, for example, must have a railroad man as president, and a board of directors which keeps him in touch with the public. That principle is applicable everywhere in industrial companies, in charitable or educational institutions, and in public affairs.

Now, what are the dangers to be encountered? In the first place how about corruption? Is a body of experts liable to be corrupt? Some people fear that permanent officials might steal. Experience in popular governments does not seem to justify that fear. If you will observe the industrial companies and see where improper things are done, where money gets into people's pockets when it ought not to, I think you will find that the grosser frauds are perpetrated by the directors rather than by the experts under them; and for a very simple reason, the expert's whole career in life depends upon his reputation in office. That is true, for instance, in the English boroughs. I never heard of a case, I think, of an expert in an English borough who stole, and I have heard cases of members of the council who cheated the city. One of the borough clerks in England told me after he had ceased to occupy the position that during the last few years of his service he was at the head of a body of officials in the town who were trying to prevent the council from running away with the funds. If any official is caught in corruption, his career in all possible directions is ruined forever. But if a member of the council is caught doing something that does shut him up in jail, his life is not necessarily wrecked. Moreover, my experience is that membership in an expert profession has a certain steadying influence based upon the general opinion of the profession itself. It is a curious fact but you will find it generally true.

So much for corruption. How about the question of administration of policy? Can you exert in that a sufficient control of the experts? If a young man should say to you that he would like to learn to drive an automobile, but he was afraid it would run away with him, you would think he was not competent to use that kind, or any kind, of machinery. If he is afraid that he cannot control an automobile he had better walk. So, if our people cannot control experts, they are not fit for self-government on the modern scale. I believe there would be really no serious difficulty in controlling experts and keeping them in check, keeping them in touch with the people; and I should like to give you one example where the use of experts has been very effective.

Twenty years ago the power of the superintendents of schools was as a rule extremely small. I remember it was commonly said at that time that the only function of the superintendent of schools in Boston was to write an annual report. Within the last 20 years the position of superintendents of schools has changed very much. It has become a profession, in which a man is sometimes employed who is not an inhabitant of the city, who has been superintendent of schools in some other town. The feeling against that is rapidly diminishing. The influence of the superintendent as an expert has become very much greater. Instead of the members of the school board trying to select teachers and manage the schools, directly, they employ a superintendent who has had years of experience, has expert knowledge, and then back him up; keeping him, however, in touch with public opinion, with the result that the relation between the schools and the people is much better, much closer than it was 20 years ago.

The problem of vocational education, which was then in its infancy, has now become extremely prominent. The school authorities are trying much harder than ever before to find out the public needs and supply them. While the experts have more authority, the service rendered by the schools and their attitude toward the public have very distinctly improved. The same thing is true in England. Twenty years ago the experts in education there had very little power. Since the Education Act of 1902 their power increased very much. There has certainly been no loss of control over experts in popular education.

Do not understand me for one moment to suggest that the use of experts is the only thing needed in municipal government, but it is a very important thing and the one that has hitherto received the least attention, because it conflicts with a popular prejudice which is not well founded. If a democracy is capable of being the best and highest form of government, that which provides its citizens with the greatest amount of happiness, let us not forget also that it is the most difficult form of government to conduct. In other forms of government a few minds must work together; but here a vast number of minds must act in concert. Instead of educating a comparatively small number of men, you must educate all the people in public things. Democracy more than any other form of government needs the very best instruments which can be used. What should we say of our country if it refused to use for public work modern machinery and inventions? Democracy needs the best machinery that can be found, the best tools that can be discovered; and the best tool that the world has ever yet produced is a highly trained human brain.

THE PRACTICABILITY OF THE MERIT SYSTEM

BY ARTHUR M. SWANSON [1]

Philadelphia

CIVIL service law was once presumed to exist primarily for the prevention of favoritism, but it has had the added effect of promoting efficiency in the public service. The former object is rather negative but not without value; the latter is positive and intensely valuable.

I have read very carefully the tentative draft of a civil service law which I understand the league is considering as a part of the municipal program. To my mind it is a much more practical law than the model proposed recently by the committee of the National Assembly of Civil Service Commissioners. I do not consider it the function of legislation to fix in the statutes every minute detail of procedure. A successful merit system must be built up by co-operation between the commission and the other branches of the government and no law or rule is tolerable which attempts to legislate appointing officers out of existence so far as their rights over public employment are concerned. A civil service law should be, as your tentative draft is, rather in the form of an enabling act, laying down broad principles and leaving details to be worked out as the administering body acquires experience and equipment. No civil service law should be promulgated by this or any other body which would require civil service experts to administer it at the outset, for the simple reason that when it is applied in a new locality the experts cannot ordinarily be had, and we must remember that, after all, the paramount thing is to get a reasonably good law and get more adoptions. I am particularly interested in two phases of your tentative draft of a law. First, the effort to render the commissioners independent by making their removal possible only by four-fifths vote of the council after public hearing. One of the most prominent facts in civil service administration so far is that its efficiency has depended so largely upon the attitude of the executive in power, or perhaps his party. Interesting to contemplate are the alternating seasons of prosperity and famine that have attended civil service reform in practically every locality where it has been adopted. The ideal type of civil service mayor is represented by Mayor Blankenburg of Philadelphia.

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[1] Chief Examiner of the Philadelphia Civil Service Commission, before the Twentieth Annual Meeting of the National Municipal League, Baltimore, Maryland, November 20th, 1914.

During the three years of his administration he has never interfered either by hint or word or letter with the administration of the civil service commission. If we do not succeed there, the fault is entirely ours.

The second thing which interests me particularly is the inclusion in the classified service of higher places. Your law very properly specifies the positions which may be exempted, and would, I believe, place all such positions as bureau chiefs in the competitive class. To leave the matter optional with the commission provides a frequent cause of friction between the commission and department heads who are usually closer to the executive than the commission; hence the commission must either acquiesce in exemptions or stand a good chance of official decapitation. I have been an eye-witness to the thrilling decapitation of civil service commissioners by the chief executive and know exactly how it is done. Not all commissions have the backbone to withstand the pressure. Under the Pennsylvania law the power of exemption is, unfortunately, in my opinion, vested in the commission. The law exempts elected officials, the heads of the executive departments whose appointment is subject to confirmation by councils and persons appointed by name in any statute, assistant directors of departments and one confidential clerk to each department. Thus all chiefs of operative bureaus are in the competitive class unless exempted by order of the commission. The present body has exempted only 2 out of a total of 15 bureau chiefs. These are the chiefs of the bureaus of water and police. I venture the thought that if these two cases were to come up now instead of two years ago when the commission had not so much experience with high grade tests, they would in all probability not be exempted. I might add that, in addition to these two cases, we have found it expedient to exempt only the assistant city solicitors and a number of positions of low grade and uncertain tenure in the hospitals and the department of wharves, docks and ferries, where wages are so trifling that competition cannot be secured. The unqualified support of the mayor has made it possible to keep all other positions, high and low, in the competitive class. Referring to city solicitors, permit me to state that, while I was chief examiner of the Kansas City commission, these positions were in the competitive class and appointments made as a result of examinations were eminently satisfactory. In fact, although there have been the most radical changes in the administration there, those assistant city solicitors are, I believe, still in office, including the first assistant, so that so far as I am concerned, I see no reason why even the deputy legal advisers of the city should be exempted. Our commission on its own motion is now holding public hearings on the proposition of removing part of the city solicitors from the exempt class.

So long as the best positions in practically every line of governmental service are subject to political changes, just so long will the public service as a career be avoided by many of the best men. Last spring I attended a conference called by Mayor Mitchel of New York to consider ways and means of practical training for the public service. The movement had its merit, no doubt, but I went away trying to figure out sufficient inducement for a man or woman to expend valuable time, money and energy in pursuing such training. I knew that in parts of Europe an honorable and remunerative career awaits him who thus prepares himself. I am by no means a pessimist, but I confess that after some years spent in examining applicants for the public service, I am forced to say that the man who to-day prepares himself for such service of a non-political character would do well to expect disappointment, unless the merit system be extended upward. He may land a place as a clerk, an inspector, or a draftsman, and perhaps he may continue to hold his place without interference, if he is under a civil service law enforced by sympathetic administrations. He may even be promoted to be chief clerk, chief inspector, or chief draftsman, but here the anomaly steps in under most civil service laws. The positions above him and the very positions which carry salaries which would enable him to do something more than live, are usually exempt from competition and form the grand prizes in the game of politics. There are some exceptions, of course, but the strange thing is that this rule is generally true. Every consideration of public service demands the breaking down of this barrier between the ordinary positions and the higher ones. First, in the natural course of things training and experience in lower positions develops men for the higher positions. Second, one of the incentives to enter public service and to work hard at it is removed when we deny the possibility of reaching the top by competition based on merit. Third, standards of work in hospital management, highway construction, bridge building, and all the other great operations under governmental supervision are in no sense matters of politics, but are matters of scientific growth from one decade to another, and for these reasons the higher positions, such as heads of operative bureaus, should be made competitive and held during good behavior. I take it that the municipal problem before us to-day is the separation of city politics and city business. Each has its legitimate field, perhaps, but they don't mix. A big step in that direction would, indeed, be the extension of the civil service law in an upward direction. I have not so much complaint to make of our progress in extending the merit system horizontally in cities, states and nation, but its extension upward has been neglected.

I cannot speak too strongly in favor of the inclusion of all the higher positions in the competitive class, except those whose incumbents are elected, are associated with the executive in determining general policies, or those of a judicial nature, but to be perfectly fair with the public I must admit and discuss such difficulties as beset us, but they are only incidental and will be overcome. In Philadelphia we have had some experience in holding examinations for positions of an executive, administrative or highly technical character. We have within the past two or three years conducted examinations for 27 positions paying $3,000 or more annually. One difficulty is this: It is not always practicable to keep on hand an eligible list for so important a position as, for example, the chief of a bureau. An examination can be held only after a vacancy or an impending vacancy is announced publicly. To do otherwise would terrorize the incumbent and put his bureau on edge. Our experience has been that the appointing power usually makes a provisional appointment pending the examination. The position being an important one, this fact becomes generally known, with the too frequent result that competition is discouraged. The provisional appointee is, of course, a competitor in the examination. Of the 27 examinations for important positions mentioned above, there were provisional appointments preceding 18 of them, and I am sure the extent of our competition was, unfortunately, reduced thereby. This is in no sense intended as a criticism of the appointing powers, for I do not presume to say there were not urgent reasons for thus filling these vacancies, but in view of these facts the commission in two recent important cases formally requested the appointing powers not to make provisional appointments. The requests were most cordially complied with and as a result there were 45 competitors in one case and 12 in the other, both numbers being highly satisfactory. This suggests that the way to reduce the evil is by co-operation between commissions and department heads. The reduction of provisional appointments is one of the great needs in civil service systems to-day wherever they are in force. This is one of our goals in Philadelphia, and to give you an idea of our progress I might add that we had 605 such appointments in 1912, but we had only 283 in 1913, a reduction of 53 per cent, and in 1914 we shall have less than 100, a reduction of 85 per cent over 1912. But, as I said before, this matter is only incidental and in no wise affects the character of the examinations given. The value of having such a method of filling a position temporarily, thus preventing any stoppage of public business, probably offsets most of its detrimental effects upon competition. Industry on the part of the commission and co-operation with departments will help to eradicate all such evils. Possibly the law should be so drawn as to prohibit a provisional appointment wherever there is at least one name on an appropriate list. I might say here that the Pennsylvania law provides for a certification of four names for each vacancy. If there are less than four names available, the appointing power frequently rejects the list and makes a provisional appointment. I think, however, that under the law his right to do so is questionable. An indication of the efficiency of these tests for higher positions is that the first man on the list has been appointed in 19 of the 27 cases above mentioned, although any one of four could have been selected.

Another difficulty in these higher examinations is that sometimes successful men are not willing to submit themselves to a civil service examination as that term is popularly understood. There is, in fact, something about the word "examination" that smacks of the academic and the theoretical. It conjures up visions of cramming volumes, and theoretical queries. It is one of the things I would eliminate from our laws and our vocabularies. And these self-same successful men are the very ones we must secure for public service in these higher positions now under discussion. It is our problem so to conduct our tests that men who have succeeded in their own vocations will not hesitate to enter the competition. Civil service reform is a failure if it brings to the public service only those who can't hold jobs elsewhere. To clear away in some measure this aversion to examinations, our commission is preparing pamphlets giving in full the questions and the methods employed in our tests for all the higher positions, and will distribute them widely and especially among business and professional men. However, I apprehend that this difficulty will largely solve itself when we reach the point where public service offers a career free from politics, where compensation is fair, and tenure dependent only upon efficient service.

Perhaps it might be in order for me to illustrate some tests for positions as institution heads or bureau chiefs. A question may exist in the minds of some as to the practicability of placing in the competitive class a very high position in, for example, the professional service. We have just completed a test for chief resident physician at the General Hospital. This physician is the medical and executive head of a hospital of 2,000 beds. I am informed it is the largest hospital of its kind in the United States. The commission invited three very eminent physicians in Philadelphia to form a special examining board and they gladly served without charge. Local residence was waived and an outline of the position and of the test was sent to every hospital east of the Mississippi River having 200 or more beds. Seventeen competitors filed applications from all parts of the country. Here let me suggest that the question of residence should never be permitted to prevent a city from obtaining the highest degree of service. Usually we do not assemble the competitors, but in this case it was more suitable to do so. Forty per cent was given to training and experience and any written articles, books, or lectures the applicant might care to submit. Thirty per cent was allotted to an oral interview with the examining board. The interviews were from a half to three quarters of an hour each and consisted of discussions of hospital management with particular stress upon ethical questions. Here let me say that wherever practicable the views of an applicant upon the ethical or moral side of things should be dwelt upon. The remaining 30 per cent was given to the applicant's written discussion of five practical problems relating to hospital work. The man who heads the list has distinguished himself as head of Cook County Hospital for some years and is at present superintendent of the City Hospital of Cincinnati, both of which positions, by the way, he won by competition. This individual typifies the men whom we could expect to see pursuing careers in every line of municipal service if competitive tests were applied to the better places. I think it may be fairly stated that an industrial establishment seldom goes into the question of selecting a manager or a department head so thoroughly and with so many safeguards as are thus used by the merit system. In the first place, few industrial establishments command the services of three of the most successful men in the community as examiners, and they could not advertise more extensively or inquire more thoroughly by correspondence with former employers and references, personal interview and written test.

It may be of interest to discuss briefly the examination for chief of our fire department. If the merit system is ever put to a test it is in the filling of such a position, where the things a man could write as answers to questions are of small consequence compared to his qualities of courage, judgment and discipline. Our first step was to secure as one special examiner the chief of the New York fire department, himself a product of the competitive system. The examination was limited to the battalion chiefs in the department and they are 11 in number. Nine of them were eligible to compete and all took the examination. Thirty per cent was allowed for experience, 40 per cent for written description of fire fighting methods, organization and equipment, and 30 per cent for an oral examination. This oral examination by the chief of the New York fire department and the other members of the board was especially interesting. A collection of a number of enlarged photographs of various buildings, and groups of buildings of various types, involving the most difficult situations, was used. The candidate was handed each of the photographs and shown the starting point of a fire. He was then asked to detail the placing of his equipment and his methods of extinguishing the blaze. The first man on the eligible list was appointed.

In much the same manner, though with slight variations here and there according to the type of position, we have successfully filled the following positions as bureau chiefs: chief, bureau of city property, $4,300; chief, electrical bureau, $6,000; chief, bureau of gas, $5,000; chief engineer, city transit, $6,000; chief, bureau of fire, $4,500; chief, bureau of elevator inspection, $3,600; chief, bureau of highways, $6,000; chief, bureau of lighting, $2,000. Some of the above positions, such as chief of the bureau of city property, are almost wholly executive in their character. Others, such as chiefs of the bureaus of gas, electricity, lighting and others, are a combination of the technical and the executive. I have not gone into a detailed description of the tests given in the above cases for the reason that they were described at your annual meeting a year ago.

But can I add further evidence to show that the merit system is a thing so practical as to be an essential part of any municipal program? Does this system really discriminate properly between the competent and the incompetent? The answer might be the way the appointing officers select men from the eligible lists. Under the Pennsylvania law, as I stated before, the appointing officer is allowed to pass over three names out of every seven. Presumably, if the results of the merit system were unsatisfactory, he would exercise that right and then ask for new lists, or, in the absence of lists, make provisional appointments of his own selection. Take highway inspectors whose duty it is to pass judgment on the vast street construction work of a great city. During little more than a year 97 have been appointed from our lists and only 17 have been passed over. The appointing officer could have passed over 75, but, instead, he has thus appointed almost every man certified to him. Is the merit system practical for skilled laborers? The modern merit system tests all such men on the streets or in the shops. Pavers are tested by an actual trial and so perfectly does the merit system discriminate that in appointing 36 pavers within about a year only 2 have been passed over, while 27 could have been passed over under our law. Is it a practical way to select policemen to guard our city? Let me answer by saying that in appointing 337 within about a year the director of public safety has passed over only 51 when he could have passed 255, which means he has appointed practically every man the merit system has furnished him. Is it a practical way to select men to fight our fires? Let me answer by saying that in appointing 172 firemen within about a year the director has passed over only 14, when he could have passed over 132, and for fire chief he appointed the man who headed the list for that important place. When we select drivers for that dangerous work, we do it by actual test with fire horses and wagon. When we select men to fire the engines, we do that by actual test with engines and hose. Is it a practical way to select civil engineers and draftsmen? In little more than a year nine lists have been created for engineers at salaries from $1,500 to $4,000 in a single department, and in eight of the nine cases the director has appointed the first man on the list, although the law allows him to take any one of the first four, and in one case he has appointed eight of the first nine. In another department they have appointed 48 draftsmen within about a year and they passed over only 5 names when they could have passed over 36. And so I could go on. I chose these illustrations at random and asked our certification clerk for the figures. And it must be borne in mind that these appointing officers have not thus made their appointments practically in the exact order of standing on eligible lists in order to glorify the merit system. It is only natural and proper to presume that what they want is to administer their departments with credit by getting work done and getting it done right. Yes, the merit system has been tried in every field and has proved to be the soundest common sense, the most economical business policy and the highest type of political wisdom.

One of the most hopeful signs about this whole matter is the unqualified willingness of the best and busiest professional men, business men, bankers or eminent men of whatever occupation to sacrifice time and energy which we could not purchase for monetary considerations in serving on special examining boards. We seldom meet with a refusal and it's one of the strongest assurances that the application of the merit system to public positions, including the higher ones, is considered sound policy by the men whose own ability and character have been tested and proved.

THE COMMISSION MANAGER PLAN

BY HENRY M. WAITE,[1]

Dayton, Ohio

The city manager form of government can be made successful. The American people are habituated to the idea of change. It is customary when we have elected one party into power to have the other party or parties immediately start a campaign to show us why that party should be out of power. We are restless for change. It is inbred in the nation. The results accomplished by the new forms of government now coming into use can as yet scarcely be grasped by the very people who have voted these governments into power. Each new improvement offends some one's prejudice or purse. Too many new improvements breed too many centers of discontent. As a people we are fickle; we learn by experience and slowly, and often through waste.

These new forms of municipal government have many ups and downs ahead of them. We love to live as we have lived. Changes with which we are not in complete sympathy we are prone to define as whims.

Every citizen is an expert on all municipal questions. Our duty, your duty, is to educate the people to appreciate the possibilities of these new forms of government which we have called into being. There, to my mind, lies the great work.

Publicity must be given to the results obtained by the new governments. We must obtain an efficient citizenship. Interest should be maintained through the schools. We need fewer elections, longer terms, and thereby greater efficiency. The commission-manager form of government can be made a success. Its permanency depends upon an intelligent citizenship, and their continued determination to keep partisan politics out of municipal matters.

Immediately after the Home Rule amendment was passed in Ohio, the thinking men of Dayton worked out a plan of action. The new charter was the result of their efforts. This charter comprises the basic form of organization used in all large corporations.

Mr. Patterson, President of the National Cash Register company, the ruling spirit, used the rule of five which he uses in all of his own organization charts.—Five commissioners elected at large and non-partisan, and five departments. The flood of Dayton aided in bringing the people together. Party lines were obliterated. Five sound business men were elected as commissioners. They selected the manager. The manager selected the directors of the five departments.

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[1] Mr. Waite is the first city manager of Dayton; before that he was the city engineer of Cincinnati under the administration of Mayor Henry T. Hunt. (See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. III, p. 517).

The director of law was on the charter commission as its legal representative. The director of finance was a public accountant. The director of welfare was a minister,—broad and intelligent.

In the months of June, July, August, September and October, the death rate of babies of under one year has been reduced 40 per cent over last year. One general, and two tuberculosis clinics have been established. School children have been joined in a civic workers' league and help to keep the city clean. Prizes have just been awarded to the school districts showing greatest improvement. Children's and back yard gardens have been awarded prizes.

Any family, or neighborhood willing to clean up empty lots, was aided by the city removing the rubbish, and plowing the lots. Four hundred lots were cleaned and plowed; four hundred dirty spots were turned into four hundred gardens which furnished vegetables to four hundred families, and gave a new interest to four hundred families.

The civic music league has been established; concerts have been given in community centers and choruses organized. A series of six concerts to be given by foremost artists and symphonies, has been arranged for this winter, at a rate of three dollars and a half for the season. Twenty-five hundred seats, which is the capacity of the hall, have been sold.

In ten months much has been accomplished, and economically accomplished.

The director of service is an engineer trained in municipal work and brought to Dayton for this service. The director of safety has not been appointed; the manager is acting director.

All the men selected are trained for the particular functions which they direct. I cannot tell you the political faith of the commissioners, or of the directors. They were selected for their ability. There were no political debts to be paid. Our energies have been expended on progressive and constructive lines. We have not attempted the sensational.

Careful, expert investigations have preceded all new plans. Expert engineers have worked out intelligent plans for improvements in the water works, looking well into future requirements.

Expert engineers have investigated and made report on the proper distribution of city wastes.

Expert engineers are advising us in the plans for the development of a comprehensive sewer system.

In a similar way, we have investigated crime and social conditions, police and fire departments, parks and playgrounds, city planning, and grade elimination.

In our finance department, our new accounting system is the same as would be found in any large business. Our budget is scientific. Every month the head of each department receives a complete financial statement which shows the original allowance, expenditures and balance in each account. We keep our expenditures inside our allowances.

In August, we found that our estimated revenues were too high. With our system of accounting and budget, we were enabled, in two days, to reduce expenditures $45,000 and reorganize all work accordingly. It was customary to issue bonds for current expenses. This practice has been stopped. We inherited a promissory note the first of the year for $125,000 in the safety department, which was paid in February. This will be reduced this year over $25,000.

All current funds in the treasury have been put into one. It has not been necessary to borrow any additional money on this note up to this time, and we will save $5,000 in interest.

Our purchasing department will save $20,000 this year.

Every department has unit cost systems. Efficiency is maintained by the deadly parallel.

Police and fire drills have been enforced. Civil service records show merits and demerits. The men are listed on the results of examinations as well as by daily performances.

Policewomen are aiding in the handling of women derelicts and domestic troubles.

The organization is keyed up to preventive methods.

The Fire Department is continually making house to house inspections, reducing fire hazard.

Workhouse prisoners are used on municipal improvements, parks, cleaning and repairing streets.

A municipal lodging house has been established. The inmates are worked one-half day.

All philanthropic and city nursing has been combined into the welfare department, thus saving all duplication of effort.

District surgeons have been appointed: three baby clinics and milk stations have been established.

All these are factors in Dayton progress during the past year—a progress that is real, substantial and continually growing.

Following the reading of his address Mr. Waite submitted himself to a cross-examination which was most illuminating. The substance of it is reproduced herewith.

Mr. Waite: I should like to add that the present plan of government was started before the flood.

Mr. Kidder: You have outlined a commission in which each member is an expert. Where does that leave the manager? The idea of the country generally is that where the manager does his best work he is commanded by a commission made up of ordinary business men without attempting to be experts in their several lines. I don't see how the manager can have the full responsibility unless he has power all along the line.

Mr. Waite: You have confused, I believe, the directors with the commission. The trained men which I have mentioned are the men that are appointed by the manager. The commissioners *are* five business men. The directors are the trained men.

Mr. Weil: In your experience as city manager, would you think it possible in cities which have not your form of government to adopt the modified manager system, by having the council by ordinance select some one as their manager or agent to supervise the departments, even without power, but making his report through the council? Would such a plan be feasible, until something of the commissioner manager plan could be adopted? Mr. Waite: Every step towards centralized authority is beneficial.

Mr. Hart: To what extent is civil service used? Mr. Waite: All heads of departments are on a classified list.

Mr. Hart: Are promotions made by civil service examinations? Mr. Waite: Yes.

Mr. Shaw: What was done in the matter of investigating the various departments after the municipal research era in Dayton?

Mr. Waite: The municipal research bureau was started in Dayton prior to any work on the new charter. They are still at work, and have been a great help to us. I have taken the trouble on several occasions to go to cities that are contemplating such a change. I advise them against rushing in too rapidly, when they are not properly prepared. Before these changes of government are inaugurated a municipal research bureau investigation or something similar which is impartial, should be made. Having followed such a bureau in two cities, it is to my mind necessary for three very primary reasons:

1st. The bureau can use the information which it gets as a means of instructing the people of that community that a change is necessary;

2d. When the government does come into effect, it is absolutely necessary because you cannot expect support and help from the people who are in office, and your bureau is the only impartial body which has the information; it is of wonderful help in putting the new government into effect;

3d. The information and the statistics which the bureau has compiled are the only means by which comparisons, of the old against the new, can be made.

Mr. Shaw: You consider it essential?

Mr. Waite: Not essential, but very important.

Mr. Childs: In some of the other cities where they have the city manager, particularly the only one I know that is not in this country, at Port Arthur, Ontario, there is a tendency of the elected directors or commissioners to interfere with the manager in petty details. It often happens that the men elected are not themselves good business men, and are interested in matters of detail work, without seeing the broad policies involved, and use their position as members of the commission, to interfere in small details with what normally should be the work of the city manager. Have you any trouble of that kind in Dayton, and if you have, how do you handle it?

Mr. Waite: We have had absolutely no such trouble. The commission and the manager work cheerfully together, like a board of directors and an executive. Of the elective body the manager is really nothing. He is supposed to carry out the directions and the policy of the governing board. I personally may have suggestions to make, or they may have suggestions to make, as they always do. We endeavor to work shoulder to shoulder all the time. We always get together. We set aside Tuesday morning to go out and look over any important subject, and have an informal meeting one evening of the week. There is going to be a very great danger in my mind from the fact that naturally the city manager is the person who is up before the public all the time,—he is the one that the public has got its finger on, and it's going to be difficult to get, as it should be, the city manager in the background and the commission, the elective body, before the people.

Mr. Childs: I heard you make this same comment before in discussing the plan,—that it's up to the people after all, and the plan will succeed if the people take an interest and back it up, and work with it and so on. What is the necessity of making that remark as applied to the city manager plan? It is true of any plan of government. Is it any truer than in the city manager plan?

Mr. Waite: I suppose it is perfectly natural that I should feel that it is. Of course it is not. That is the difficult thing to accomplish in all changes of government and so-called reforms. The electors are awakened and aroused through some particular chain of circumstances or psychological movement. They effect this change of government, and then they usually pass it up. They think, "What a beautiful thing we have done." Then down it comes. They do not stay under and hold it up. It is a difficult thing to keep the citizenship interested in the result which they are obtaining through these changes.

Mr. Childs: You don't feel that the plan is more likely to fail through lack of interest then?

Mr. Waite: It is more likely to succeed, simply for the reason that it will hold the public attention longer and clearer, because you have that centralized authority to which the public are always looking.

Mr. Chase: Following that same line of thought,—Haverhill, Massachusetts, during the first year of its commission form of government had an excellent body of commissioners. The old government of the city had been unsatisfactory. In the new commission there was only one who was at all associated with the old body. He was a very good man. The first year the results were satisfactory. Deficits of some $70,000 were changed into a surplus of $13,000 by efficiency in the administration. In the second year at the election two members of the old government came in, and subsequently a third member of the old government came in. There are now two members of the new against three of the old. The conditions now are very different from what they were first. What is going to be the effect of such a condition?

Mr. Waite: If I am the manager, I will get out. This is a very grave question. We have the five commissioners which were elected,—the two receiving the lowest number of votes hold office for two years, so a year from this November we have our first election for two commissioners. Of course, we all know that the politicians are simply marking time for that election, and that is why I say we need an intelligent citizenship. If the citizenship at that election is not aroused to what they have been able to receive through this particular form of government, the politicians will win. They will have two members on the commission, and then two years further on, we have an election for three commissioners.

Mr. Daniels: I would like to ask Mr. Waite what he thinks of the suggestion of ultimately bringing the manager under the civil service?

Mr. Waite: I do not think it will ever become practicable.

Mr. Bonaparte: Is the manager removable at pleasure by the council, and are the heads of the departments removable at pleasure by the manager, or by the commission?

Mr. Waite: Yes, they are in our charter. The manager is subject to recall by a vote of the people as well as the commission, after six months.

Mr. Weil: If a campaign should be waged in a community having this form of government, is there not a danger that the question may arise as to the retention of the then manager or the election of some one else, and the manager in order to retain his position exercise the power that he has for the purpose of putting into power a commission that will retain him as manager? What is the danger in that respect?

Mr. Waite: I presume there might be a danger in that respect; but I cannot imagine any quicker way of a manager cutting off his own head. The minute he started to build up a machine around it he certainly would be cut off.

Query: You say the saving in the purchasing of goods last year amounted to $20,000. Do you mean to say that was saved over and above the year before, and if so, what were your expenditures, and by what method could you have saved $20,000 in one year?

Mr. Waite: The purchases made previously in Dayton were made as they are in a great many cities, and in most states. If A, at the head of a department, or B or C wants a dozen pencils, or a lot of stationery, he goes out and buys it. The different letterheads in the various departments represent the artistic development of the head of each department. Coal was purchased by each department. All supplies were purchased in that manner. We have simply issued specifications for various materials. All supplies must be purchased through the purchasing department. Requisitions made must first bear the O. K. of the finance director that the funds are available. Then bids are taken on large quantities of material.

We have the bids. We have them opened publicly. Then we commence to do our buying. $20,000 is the amount of money which we have saved in the purchase of materials.

Mr. Jones: In regard to the enemies which come as a result of improvements,—if you have a sufficient number of improvements, you will have a corresponding number of enemies. What do you think of the danger of the city manager becoming an issue in the city election?

Mr. Waite: There is that possibility of his becoming an issue. I imagine that is the reason that they put the recall in for the manager. It would be unfortunate if the manager should become the issue, and for that reason the commission must be kept before the public as the responsible body. If we can carry the government through far enough to let the people as a whole see the big things that they are getting, then these small centres of discontent will gradually wear away,—we will use them more as an argument in favor of a constructive publicity,—to let the people as a whole appreciate what they do get by this form of government.

Mr. Hatton: How would you get publicity?

Mr. Waite: We are working on that now, and it has got to be very carefully handled. We have our constructive publicity travel along on practical lines. We publish statements, financial statements of things which we are accomplishing, of new efforts, but they simply go in one ear and out the other ear of the public, and a great many of them they do not read at all. You know it is a peculiar fact that if a man has had a hole in the pavement in front of his house for six months, that is the only bad feature of the government, and when you repair that hole he absolutely forgets it was there before. That is municipal psychology.

Mr. Jones: As I understood you a while ago you do not believe the city manager should be subject to recall? Mr. Waite: Yes. Mr. Jones: You think the burden should be on the commission?

Mr. Waite: Absolutely. You are apt to make an issue of the manager, the very thing that you should avoid.

Mr. Childs: There is, I understand, a minority in Dayton, which is more or less active in opposition to the whole plan and the present régime. I know that there was a public meeting held there which opposed the commission plan and the way it was working, and that had a powerful influence on another city in Ohio which was considering the adoption of the plan. I would like to learn a little bit about the operations of that minority, the arguments that they bring up against the plan,—that is, of course, if it won't get you into trouble.

Mr. Waite: It already has. I don't think that any form of government is a success, can ever be a success, unless it has some opposition. Opposition which we have at the present is socialistic more than anything else. It has been active and above-board ever since we started. They are against everything. There is no satisfying them. They have no particular complaint against anything that we do, except that we do not immediately buy all the surface lines, electric lines and plants, and gas companies. I don't consider them seriously. It has not grown. It is just about the same as it was when it started. I do not mean that municipal objection is confined entirely to the socialists, but that opposition is a healthy one. It is a good, sound lot of fellows. They are working hard. I go before them and talk to them. We are pretty good friends on the outside, but they dig me in the ribs every chance they get.

Their arguments are rather embarrassing to me. They say "I can't understand why you are not in favor of municipal ownership. Your present form of government is an ideal time to take over all these activities."

Mr. Daniels: What is your opinion as to the size of the salaries? In order to get men of the requisite calibre, is the honor appeal, the usefulness appeal sufficient, or do you think the salaries should be larger?

Mr. Waite: Considering our own commissioners, the salary was not any appeal. The salary does not make up for their loss of time from their own businesses. At the same time I feel there should be some salary. The amount of that salary would vary in various communities. It is a peculiar fact that the American business men, although they might be willing to give up their time without any compensation, at the same time feel that if they are getting a little salary they can afford to give up some of their time better. That is perfectly natural. One of our commissioners is a type setter. That man could not afford to give up the time which he gives to the commission unless as he gets something in return.

He has to hire some one to take his place when he is called away from his work. It is only fair and just.

Mr. Hatton: To what extent does the plan really demonstrate the right of the majority of the people to get what they want?

Mr. Waite: I feel absolutely that the people as a whole get much more, because they can very easily get in touch with the government and make their demands and feelings felt. You take, for instance, some of the federal charters, I was quite surprised to see some in Massachusetts made in 1852. There is to-day one in Springfield, Massachusetts. They have two chambers and innumerable committees outside of the various chambers. Some question was taken up there a short time ago. Nobody wanted to report on it, and they chased it around through these various committees, and finally it was lost sight of. Nobody knows where it is to-day. It is lost. They followed it through twelve various committees. In the city manager plan that sort of thing is absolutely impossible.

Mr. Hatton: Does the public take an intelligent interest in the meetings of the commission? Mr. Waite: Only fairly so, I am sorry to say.

Mr. Hatton: You have people coming to your meetings? Mr. Waite: Not generally, unless there is something coming up of importance.

Mr. Weil: What is your opinion as to whether or not in a boss-ridden community, where politics is in control, the people have a greater opportunity or less in the city under this plan, or any of the other forms now in vogue?

Mr. Waite: If a political boss got hold of a commission manager form of government, he could have a beautiful time, but he would not last long. He could not last long, because there is no place to shift the responsibility, which is the old game. If he acted as the manager, the people would demand that that manager get out. They say that the city manager is a boss. He is in a way, of course, but he is a boss that is paid. He is before the public, not behind it. He is always before the public.

Mr. Weil: If I understand you correctly, this form of government in a community in which the boss was in control could not last?

Mr. Waite: I don't think so.

Mr. Jones: I understand that one of the duties of the city manager is the regulation of the social evil. That suggests two questions,—whether you consider that the duty of a city manager, and second, in the case of Dayton, is he determining that policy himself, or is he under the direction of the commission? Mr. Waite: The manager is under the direction of the commission in everything.

Mr. Waite: If the city manager is going to be anything he has got absolutely to carry out all of the laws of the city. He has got to do it.

Mr. Kurtz: In your plan, you have reduced your heads of departments to the minimum. Are they not getting the best results of government, certainly in the German cities, from a division of interest, with a centralized power? We would like to save the expert knowledge, plus the theoretical impulse, which is embraced in the membership of some of our commissions. One of your vice-presidents, Mr. Bancroft, is the leading spirit of our park system. He represents the whole progress in that line. Mr. Waite: We are doing that. Our charter allows the appointment of various advisory committees, simply as advisory boards. They have no actual authority, We have such a board on our city planning, and we have three or four of them, on building, and naming and re-numbering of streets.

Mr. Kurtz: Would such a committee be more successful in handling the vice question? Mr. Waite: I think the less number of people that handle the vice question the better you are off.

Query: What is your feeling towards the surface railway control in Dayton? Mr. Waite: I think I have got troubles enough now. There is no question but that ultimately the municipal ownership will come. It ought to come gradually. We have got to face it. It should never come until we have developed some municipal government that can govern efficiently and properly the utilities which they are now operating.

Mr. McClintock: As I understand it, you have supreme control over the heads of departments. In case the heads of departments should unite in subordination, refuse to recognize your authority, and you should appeal to the commission, and they should refuse to support you, what would you do?

Mr. Waite: I would fire every one of them. I would not appeal to the commission.

Mr. McClintock: The reason I asked that question was because yesterday I came across a gentleman who was recently the manager of the city of Frostburg, Maryland, and who had just such an experience, and I would like to call upon him to state that experience.

Mr. Stern: I found after I had become mayor at Frostburg that I really was not mayor. I was simply a member of the council, and the only authority that I had was as presiding officer of the council. Before that I was an ordinary business man, and had taken no particular interest in public matters, so when I came to study out the matter, and found that I wanted to run the things in the way an executive would run a business, I found no machinery to run it with. I found that the people, on the other hand, look upon the mayor as the responsible one. They look to him to correct any trouble. The organization of the council was opposed to me. We had some friction on that account, but they were fairly decent men, fairly good men, and really in a way wanted to do the right thing. There is very little salary connected with the office of the council, and in a small community such as that of 8,000 or 9,000 people, the men really wanted to do what was right as far as they could.

I suggested to them that it was impossible under the conditions to do anything in the town. If you did, it cost twice as much as it ought to cost. I suggested to them that if we could adopt the working principle of the city manager plan, we could accomplish something,—take up all these various loose ends and centralize things. They agreed with me, with the proviso that I would accept the city managership. I did not have a great deal to do at that time, so I thought "All right." So they made me a city manager under a resolution of council. But their proviso was that I should take the men that they had already named for the various offices. Of course, I recognized as anyone who has had experience as an executive would recognize that that was going to hamper me, and I could do very little under such conditions. At the same time I felt that the city manager plan from the point of view of a business man, —I did not know about the point of view of a government expert,—that that was an ideal system of government. I found that I would have to be asked to be relieved of the powers of authority, and the powers of the city manager, and I was relieved. I should like to ask from the point of view of a business man,—in the charter of Dayton I see that it is specified that you shall have five directors. Under the charter of Dayton, I see also you are limited with respect to the civil service commission. From the point of view of the expert executive, don't you think that is somewhat inconsistent with the theory of a city manager? Why should a city manager be hampered with these details? Don't you think that is inconsistent?

MR. WAITE: No, I think not. I think it is perfectly proper.

SHORT ARTICLES

MUNICIPAL BUSINESS MANAGER

BY JOHN S. PATTON[1]

Charlottesville, Virginia

CHARLOTTESVILLE in Virginia is well on the way to 200 years old, and has a population of about 10,000. In form its government has not got beyond the discredited mayor and council period, although in fact it has had one year of experience of a more efficient organization.

We still have a mayor and council because our constitution requires them, and the council is constituted of 12 members because the city's charter requires 12. An attempt to reduce the number by legislative action was defeated first by the council's opposition; the attempt was repeated with the council's approval, but the executive committee of the chamber of commerce unanimously petitioned the legislature not to pass the act, and the chamber unanimously ratified the action of its committee! The plan was voted too drastic, although the legislature was asked only to authorize a change of the government from a council of 12 members to one not exceeding five, and this was to become effective only in case the council of 12 was unanimously in favor of the measure and willing to resign in a body to make way for the proposed reform.

Mayor and councilmen all have been honest and eager to serve the community in a finely unselfish way. There has never been any graft, and no hint of it. Failure there has been, not as a climax, but from beginning to end, for good and sufficient reasons, which are now visible to the weakest perception. A minority of the council pointed out the reasons for failure year after year: it was the unintended, unpremeditated tyranny of council committees. Sixty-five per cent of all the revenue went to salaries, interest, sinking fund, schools, court expenses, street lighting contracts, etc. The remaining 35 per cent was annually assigned for use and disbursement by six committees—the committees on streets, water and sewers, gas and light, health, poor, and cemeteries. It was almost literally true that the sum turned over to each committee was disbursed by the chairman. How did the committees acquit themselves? I repeat what I said to the League of Virginia Municipalities:

> I can tell you what one of them did last year—which will not be the whole story, by any means. One of its members says it never convened. Its expenditures exceeded a thousand dollars a month, and there is not

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[1] Former mayor and present chairman of the finance committee of Charlottesville, Va.

one report on file to show where the money went. The chairman of that committee is honest and clean; he has had long years of experience in the council, and is second to no one in that body for fitness for the chairmanship he held. But he had no time for writing reports, and none for trying to have meetings of a committee he believed would not meet. So far as the expenditure of $12,000 was concerned, I, who sat in that council, had virtually no vote and my constituents no voice. There is a new chairman of this committee, and he has said there will be reports, but he has also said that the reports will be made *after*, not before the expenditures. I protested on the floor of the council—as did others—against this policy, and was told by three chairmen that they "couldn't do business" if they were required to say before the money was spent where they were going to spend it; and the president of the council ruled, on a motion of mine, that all the revenues must be appropriated without reserve at the beginning of the fiscal year. Where is the mayor? you may ask. Has he no lance nor shield? He can write messages; these are his lances. He has the veto—his shield. The lance and shield are worthless, for as soon as the fiscal year begins all available revenue is in the hands of the six committees. It is sent to these committees by an appropriation bill, no section of which has ever been vetoed. Once in the hands of the committees it is in effect beyond the reach of the council and beyond any official power or authority of the mayor, and the acts of the committees are similarly beyond anybody's authority.

Under this system a considerable floating debt was created, and at the beginning of the fiscal year 1912–13, holding that it "had no right to sanction any expenditure except of money in hand and collectible during the fiscal year," the finance committee recommended that the council make appropriations monthly in advance upon estimates made by the six committees of the sums needed to conduct the operations under their supervision and that the committees should at the same time report to what use the money was to be devoted. "The reason for monthly appropriations," said the committee, "is that in no other way can the expenditure of money be fairly subjected to the mayor's veto. Appropriating the whole income of the city at the beginning of the fiscal year is largely a performance in the dark, while monthly appropriation in advance, made upon requisition from the committees, will enable the council to profit by the knowledge of the committees and to relate the expenditures of public revenue to the object and purpose of the expenditures at a time very near to that of the disbursement."

This proposition was rejected, as was the later one that appropriations be made quarterly, because, as was said on the floor of the council, those opposed to it saw in it a scheme by which the finance committee (composed of three members) intended to establish "a censorship" over the council (composed of 12 members!).

This was the *modus operandi* of committee government in Charlottesville. A glance at the appropriations and expenditures of the fiscal year 1912–13 will show the results: The committee on streets exceeded its appropriation by more that 45 per cent, the committee on gas and light by nearly 50 per cent, the committee on fire equipment by 10 per cent, the committee on cemeteries by more than 50 per cent, and the committee on health by more than 10 per cent.

By the end of the fiscal year 1912–13 a floating debt equal to a fifth of the annual income of the city had accumulated. It was so plainly the penalty of city government by unpaid committees that councilmen who had feared "a censorship" and hesitated to take what they regarded as radical measures united with the finance committee and in the summer of 1913 passed an ordinance effective one year, and in the summer of 1914 amended and re-enacted it to read as follows:

> Be it ordained, by the council of Charlottesville, That a municipal business manager be elected at the meeting of this council, regular, adjourned or called, next after the passage of this ordinance, for a term of two years beginning September 1, 1914, and biennially in August thereafter, at a salary of $—— a month, and under a bond of such amount as the finance committee may designate.
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> That all the duties of an executive or administrative character performed by any of the several committees of the council of said city, under any ordinance now in force, be conferred upon and required to be exclusively discharged by the said municipal business manager, the said committees to act in an advisory capacity; and that in case a committee representing a department shall, by a vote of all its members at a meeting called with notice to the said municipal business manager, disapprove of any proposed act in that department the matter at issue shall be referred to the council for its action.
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> That the said municipal business manager shall, as near as possible to September 1, 1914, and quarterly thereafter, make up and present to the council an estimate of all sums of money necessary to carry on the operations of the city in the various departments for the ensuing quarter.
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> That the said municipal business manager shall, at the end of each quarter, make a written report to the council of all transactions and operations during the said quarter, including a detailed statement of all bills approved by him showing how and where the various sums were expended during said quarter in order that all disbursements may be related to their objects in the several departments.

These are few and simple words, but they put an end to committee rule. When they became law the council became a legislative body; administration an executive fact. The plan calls for a good man in the office of municipal business manager—a requirement of all improved methods of city government. A. V. Conway entered the office of mayor September 1, 1912. Less than a year of service proved his mettle to be of the best, and he was elected municipal business manager for the experimental year beginning September 1, 1913. In July, 1914, when the ordinance was re-enacted, he was chosen for a term of two years. He is a man of means, and accepted the office of mayor and that of municipal business manager to render a public service and not for emolument or political advancement. He has applied efficient methods to municipal management with energy and fine judgment.

His first year in the office of manager began with the fiscal year, 1913–

14. At the beginning of that year an estimate was made of the cost of the operating of every department of the government for the 12 months. One fourth of this estimate in each case was then appropriated for the first quarter. At the beginning of each subsequent quarter the manager presented his estimate, always keeping his requests within the limit of one fourth of the estimate for the year in each department.

At the end of the first quarter he returned to the treasury the balances to the credit of each department. The net aggregate of these for the first quarter was about three thousand dollars, and each of the four quarters of the year showed an unexpended balance. These balances were covered back into the treasury for reappropriation.

I reproduce an interesting page from the business manager's first annual report:

RECAPITULATION OF APPROPRIATIONS AND EXPENDITURES DURING FISCAL YEAR 1913–14

	Am't Appropriated	Am't Spent	To Credit of Appropriation	Spent over Appropriation
Sewers	$3,475.37	$3,185.28	$290.09	
Water	7,928.00	7,630.82	297.18	
Gas	24,764.00	24,898.23		$134.23
Poor	2,360.00	1,948.26	411.74	
Fire	4,650.00	4,614.39	35.61	
Cemeteries	2,000.00	1,908.71	91.29	
Streets	14,027.20	12,694.74	1,332.46	
Health	2,030.00	2,039.91		9.91
Incidentals	4,100.00	4,188.50		88.50
Salaries	7,990.00	8,147.08		157.08
Police	8,158.00	8,112.92	45.08	
Int. on bonds	25,920.00	25,835.00	85.00	
Sinking fund	13,000.00	83,000.00		
Int. and discount	1,200.00	865.50	334.50	
Lights	6,500.00	6,811.74		311.74
Public schools	10,000.00	10,000.00		
Summer school	500.00	500.00		
Aux. water bonds	5,000.00	5,000.00		
Maturing gas bonds	2,000.00	2,000.00		
Oil for streets	1,500.00	1,350.72	149.28	
Street flusher	2,000.00	575.00	1,425.00	
Sidewalks	2,125.00	1,959.56	165.44	
Police uniforms	225.00	228.14		3.14
N. L. Levy property	7,000.00	7,000.00		
Refunded fines	59.50	59.50		
Refunded licenses	25.00	25.00		
Refunded taxes	66.06	66.06		
Old veterans	200.00	200.00		
Release of stable contract	160.00	160.00		
	$158,963.13	$155,005.06		

Net amount to credit of appropriation, $3,958.07

Along with this report should go the statement that out of these appropriations sufficient was saved to add $6,465 to the city's fixed capital and enough of the revenue was saved to add by special appropriations $9,872.49.

All this has come to pass through a concentration of power and responsibility accomplished by the ordinance creating the office of municipal business manager. This officer's power is complete until a departmental committee unanimously appeals from him and the council sustains its appeal. No action of the kind has ever been taken or suggested.

CHECKS ON CONCENTRATION IN MODERN CHARTERS

BY DR. CHARLES FREMONT TAYLOR[1]

Philadelphia

ONE of the most important of the numerous worthy and useful accomplishments of the National Municipal League has been its influence on and helpfulness in city charter making in this country. At its recent annual meeting in Baltimore, this was one of the most important topics discussed; and it is a proof of the progressiveness of the league that after thorough discussion, the dominant opinion of the experts there assembled was that the "commission manager" plan of charter is the best in sight at the present time. However, the time limit for discussion expired just as the subject of *checks* was reached; and the present writer has been asked to take up this part of the subject, and also to give his views on two notable books that have recently appeared on charters and city government.

As the chief and most effective checks on the city manager plan of city government, as well as upon all other plans of either city or state government, are the initiative, referendum and recall, these will be given prominence in this presentation.

One of the most helpful books to charter committees that the writer has seen is "Applied City Government,"[2] by Herman G. James, J.D., Ph.D., associate professor of government and director of the bureau of municipal research and reference at the University of Texas. There is not a superfluous word in this book. It is a marvel of clear analysis and terse expression.

The formation of a charter is taken up step by step, and after each section of the proposed model charter is explained, it is put into terse and simple words and is printed in italic letters. Thus a model charter is built up, article by article, so that, when a committee has finished the book, the italic portions of the book can be merely put together, and a model charter will be had. The writer knows of no other book on this subject on so simple and practical a plan.

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[1] Editor of *Equity* and *Medical World*.

[2] Published by Harper & Brothers, New York, 1914. Price 75 cents.

The powers (article I) are expressed in these simple but comprehensive words: "*and shall possess all powers consistent with the laws and constitution of the state of* . . . " Thus in this simple manner, every question as to powers is at once limited only by the state laws and constitution. In the explanatory matter preceding he says that "an enumeration of powers will be construed to exclude powers not enumerated." The above brief statement, in italics, embraces all of home rule that any city in a given state can possess.

The model charter thus built up is short, consisting of only seven articles, and the articles as a rule are short and very exact in their expression. The author advocates the preferential ballot (Grand Junction plan), which he explains and illustrates clearly and includes in his model charter. He also explains proportional representation, but does not include it in the charter.

As to the form of government, he boldly adopts the commission form as modified by the city manager plan, though he seems to prefer the term mayor to city manager as applying to the chief administrative officer of the city. The commissioners shall serve without pay. The mayor (or city manager) shall be chosen by the commission without limit as to previous residence; this officer to be selected for his administrative qualifications for an indefinite term. He "shall be responsible to the governing body of the city for the proper administration of all the affairs of the city."

Sufficient has been said to indicate that this book presents the best and latest opinions concerning city charters, with (regretfully) an important exception which we will take up later under the head of checks.

Now let us take a peep into the other book: "Municipal Charters,"[3] by Nathan Matthews, LL.D., mayor of Boston 1891–95, chairman of Boston finance commission 1907–09, lecturer on municipal government in Harvard University.

This is a scholarly book *of the old school.* These two books show vividly the difference in their point of view between Boston and Texas. The first part of the book (93 pages) deals with "essentials of an American city charter." Then follow charter drafts. The first one, along the lines of the old ideas, consists of 63 very full pages. Charter *B*, the commission type, would modify the first charter according to 10 pages of omissions, substitutions, etc. Part III of the book consists of 26 pages of notes to the charter drafts.

The author's conservatism is marked, in comparison with our Texas author. He strongly favors the "responsible executive type" (page 14) of city government. The following sentence, quoted from page 15, sums up his ideal of city government:

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[3] Published by Harvard University Press, 1914. Price $2.00 net.

> "The type of charter best adapted to the case would therefore seem to be the responsible executive type with a single small legislative board or council, with such checks and balances as will prevent the grosser forms of extravagences and corruption, and with such a concentration of the several powers of the city government that at each succeeding election the voters may have no difficulty in determining who is and who is not responsible for what has been done or left undone."

It is surprising to the up-to-date student that the author would admit no possibility of recall, but "at each succeeding election" the voters may determine "who is and who is not responsible for what may have been done or left undone"! No check upon officers except the regular elections, and as we shall see later, no check upon what the officers may do! This is the plan that has always pleased the "predatory interests" and their creatures, the politicians.

Publicity has long been advocated and depended upon as a check to misgovernment and corruption in city government. No "cure" has so many failures to its credit. This remedy should be continued, of course. We should not give up anything in which there is any good at all; but we should recognize its weakness, and add checks that really do check.

Ex-mayor Matthews, as representing the conservative type of thought, favors a unicameral legislative body of small numbers. Thus we see that even the conservatives are now demanding the concentration of power in few hands. Along with this *must* go the possibility of checks on such concentrated power, to be used only in case of need.

This principle is so reasonable and necessary that very few oppose it. The check universally held by private employers upon their employees is the possibility of discharge. The public should have the same power of control of the public's employees. This is the recall. As we shall see later, this power is extensively held by cities and even by states, and it has not been abused. It has been used to excellent purpose, even the mere existence of this power exercising a salutary influence upon public officers.

A public officer, however, may do much harm before he could possibly be recalled; and he may be negatively good, but leave many important things undone. By the referendum it is possible for the voters to effectively check any undesirable ordinance; and by the initiative it is possible for the voters to propose and enact ordinances desired by them but neglected or opposed by their official (supposed) representatives. Thus faulty representation is remedied. And that is the only purpose of the initiative and referendum. They are not presented as a substitute for representative government, but only as a corrective of false representation.

Now to take up Professor James' book again: Among its many excellencies we regret to find a reactionary note. Concerning the initiative and referendum let us say the good things first. Here is section I of article VII (pages 92 and 93):

> *Every issue of bonds authorized by the governing body of the city, under the limitations herein prescribed, and every grant of a franchise for the operation of a public utility, under the following limitations, shall, before becoming effective, be submitted to a vote of the people for ratification. Such ratification shall occur at a special election held for that purpose unless a regular election occurs within ninety days of the date of passing the resolution authorizing the bond issue or the granting of the franchise, in which case the question shall be submitted at such election. In either case a majority of the votes cast on the question shall be necessary and sufficient to make the proposed measure effective.*

Beyond this, which, however, is a very important exception, Professor James is hopelessly conservative concerning these important checks on concentrated government. For either the initiative or referendum he would make the astonishing requirement of 35 per cent, not of the votes cast at the previous election, but *of the qualified voters* (that is, whether they voted at the preceding election or not). And for the recall he would make the same extreme requirement.

Turning again to Ex-mayor Matthews' book: He would tolerate the referendum on licenses for the sale of intoxicating liquors, the issue of loans for particular purposes, the establishing of public gas, water, electric lighting and similar undertakings, etc., and it is to be invoked presumably by the council, as he distinctly and emphatically opposes the initiative, referendum or recall on petition by the voters. Thus this book, though new, takes a place among the antiquated works on municipal government.

Considering Ex-mayor Matthews as hopeless, and assuming that the readers of this progressive magazine recognize the fact that concentrated power may become dangerous unless it is possible to use checks when occasion may arise, and as it is very probable that the readers of this magazine and many charter committees will be attracted to Professor James' book, let us address ourselves to the extreme and unreasonable percentages he would require for invoking the initiative, referendum and recall.

The writer has now before him the charters of 37 initiative, referendum and recall cities, and 27 general state laws concerning the use of the initiative, referendum and recall in cities. *Not one* makes the extreme requirements advocated by Professor James. Wilmington, North Carolina, comes the nearest, requiring 35 per cent, not of the registered voters, but of the vote cast at the last preceding general election. And while it would require 35 per cent for the initiative special election, yet it would allow an initiative on 10 per cent, to be voted on at the next general election. This is the closest we can come to Professor James' figures in actual practice, and it stands alone, though its requirements are much easier than those of Professor James.

In practice, the recall percentages are the highest, ranging from 15 per cent (Sacramento, California, only 10 per cent—and no harm done) to 35 per cent. Many are 15 per cent, many 20 per cent and many 25 per cent—very few higher. The initiative and referendum percentages run distinctly lower. There are many 5 per cent, and many 10 per cent. Some run higher. The higher percentages are usually for special elections.

Now how have these worked in practice? Details may be seen in "Municipal Initiative, Referendum and Recall in Practice," by the present writer in October, 1914, issue of this magazine.[4] But the following brief statement may be made here:

In this country there are nearly 400 municipalities that have the commission form of government; and nearly all of them have the initiative, referendum or recall, and some municipalities not under the commission form of government have these powers. A majority (at least 200) have all three of these powers, while some have the initiative and referendum without the recall, etc. Of all these municipalities, and for all the time they have possessed these powers, a nation-wide investigation discovered that only 31 had used the initiative, 26 the referendum and 33 the recall. Further, 35 attempts to invoke the recall have been made, but failed on account of the promoters not being able to get a sufficient number of signatures. This indicates that the securing of recall signatures is not as easy as some theorists seem to believe. Of the 33 recall elections actually held, 20 resulted in recall and 13 resulted in re-election of the official sought to be recalled.

In examining the uses of the initiative, referendum and recall in the various cities of the country, we do not find any indication of the fact that those cities which have the lowest percentages have used these powers the most frequently. In fact, many whose requirements are the lowest have not used these powers at all. Among those which have used these powers the most frequently can be found those which require the highest percentages. For example, Dallas, Texas, has made the most frequent and the most successful use of the recall among all the cities that have the recall, yet its recall requirement is 35 per cent, the highest percentage given, yet not quite as high as that recommended by Professor James, as he recommends 35 per cent of the entire electorate, whereas Dallas, Texas, requires "35 per cent of the entire vote cast for candidates for the office of mayor on the final ballot at the last preceding general municipal election." Hence it seems that when there is occasion to invoke these powers, they will be invoked even though the conditions are difficult; and easy conditions do not cause the undue use of these powers. Here we have facts and experience favoring low percentages. Facts and experience prove that low percentages do not lead to abuse of these powers.

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[4] Vol. iii, p. 693.

The above results show a striking conservatism on the part of the voters. They do not abuse these enlarged powers, but they use them to good purpose when there is occasion. The corruption that a few years ago made municipal government in America notorious the world over would have been impossible if the voters of all municipalities had possessed the initiative, referendum and recall.

The old-fashioned "checks and balances" consisting chiefly of distribution of powers and division of responsibilities did not check, and the "balances" were seen chiefly in the bank accounts of "boodlers" who were permitted to use the powers of city government for their own selfish aggrandizement. Publicity was later added as a check, and we wish to preserve and extend it, but it has not been an effective check.

The old-fashioned "checks and balances," the division of powers and distribution of responsibilities, do not check. They permit the intrusion of selfish interests in the government and prevent the adequate protection of the public interests. We see the need of discontinuing the "balances," and of concentrating the powers and responsibilities. This is the only way to increase efficiency. But concentrated powers are dangerous without the possibility of control outside the few hands into which great power has been concentrated. Where is the most rational place in which to lodge this possible control? There can be but one answer: the electorate. And the initiative, referendum and recall are the best methods yet devised in which to exercise this control.

These, then, are the checks *par excellence.* They do not obtrude except when needed. They do not interfere with efficiency, yet they insure faithfulness and honesty. They are admirable in theory, and they have proven to be safe and effective in practice.

There is one thing more that may possibly be construed as a check. It is proportional representation. It can be construed as a check on the theory that a representative body chosen by a method that will place in that body representatives of every considerable class or group in the electorate, approximately according to the numbers of each, will be more likely to represent the electorate truly and satisfactorily than a body not so made up. The theory is good, and the practice will doubtless prove the theory.

TANGIER: AN INTERNATIONAL CITY

BY DENYS P. MYERS[1]
Cambridge, Massachusetts

IT FALLS to Tangier, Morocco, once a fertile center for near-war news that made head lines to become the first really international city of the world. In a few months the new régime will be in control and the quaint hodge-podge of modern business and Moorish aristocracy and poverty that is called Tangier will be ruled by the Moors themselves and the French, Spanish, English and German[2] residents of the place. But that does not end the story. In 1912 France acquired Morocco as a protectorate, and Spain secured control of the slice along the coast, except Tangier. So the international city is in a Spanish preserve, which is in the territory of Morocco, which is in charge of France. The Moors, of course, constitute the largest element of Tangier's population, also the least important. The Spaniards outnumber the French, but France holds the strings of government down at Fez, where the sultan reigns but governs only by consent of France. Yet Tangier is an international city set at the center of all this maze, and those who know it best believe it will succeed.

The scheme was worked out at Madrid, the scene of the negotiations in 1880 that first brought Morocco on to the world stage as an international question, and the scene of the diplomatic settlement that divided the country between France and Spain after Germany was eliminated subsequent to the Agadir incident of 1911. Immediately after France and Spain settled their accounts the question of Tangier came up and the plans for the international government were not completed until July, 1913, while the new régime will not be in full operation for some time.

The negotiations at Madrid progressed in secret and were unique. Really four primary interests were represented in them, though the negotiators were but three in number. France represented both herself as the suzerain and Morocco as her protectorate, which, however, can have but an attenuated control over the vicinity of Tangier and over Tangier itself; Spain represented herself as the European country most interested from the point of view of her citizens and from her control over the immediate vicinity of the city; and, lastly, Great Britain represented Europe, including her own vital interest in protecting the Strait of Gibraltar, and as the friend and adviser of France and Spain who had participated in all the negotiations relating to Morocco. German interests were constantly consulted.

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[1] Of the World's Peace Foundation, Boston.

[2] As a result of the declaration of war between France and Germany of August 3, 1914, German residents in the French protectorate of Morocco have been expelled. There is, however, no reason not to suppose that the arrangements explained in the article will be the permanent basis.

Considering the present division of the rest of Morocco between France and Spain and the intention to make Tangier really an international city, the negotiations were unique from the diplomatic point of view. Even more broadly, they are more so from a legal point of view. Heretofore, the system of capitulations has governed foreigners in the so-called backward nations. The foreign communities at Peking and Constantinople, for instance, have well-defined extraterritorial rights; in Egypt the international court is too familiar to warrant description. Tangier, however, is to differ from these: its foreign and native populations are not to have generic rights and privileges to any greater extent than can be avoided. The Madrid negotiations, therefore, were designed to put forward an experiment in international law which will be watched with interest and may form a basis for governing analogous communities in other parts of the world.

From the very novelty of the problems encountered, not to speak of the difficulty of compromising the national interests affected, the Madrid negotiations were destined to be lengthy. The considerations above set forth are, of course, immediately understandable, but their working out into the definite articles of a municipal constitution offered the tedious problem. Fortunately the problem was not essentially a political one, its primary basis being to set up a municipal government that, while doing no violence to the Makhzen's control of the state, French control of the Makhzen and Spanish authority in the northern zone, should give essential justice to foreigner and Moor alike in the affairs of the city.

Nor did the problem arise solely from the Agadir incident that resulted in Morocco dropping out of the list of sovereign nations. Early in 1911, before Mulai Hafid's beleaguerment in, and the French relief of, Fez, the Makhzen, or Moorish government, worked out a project of municipal regulations for Tangier which became the basis of the Madrid negotiations, which encountered a problem different in character from the Makhzen's task only as subsequent events added new considerations. The fundamental idea of an internationalized city was then uppermost in the minds of the sherifian authorities and the diplomatic corps, who together were in control of the city.

Tangier is for practical purposes a neutral city, and steps will doubtless be taken by the European governments for its formal recognition as such. To begin with, the municipality, established by sherifian decree, includes the territory subject to the urban tax as levied under the Algeciras act, subject to extension, and this renders its domain the creation of the powers. This municipal domain is defined as public and private, the terms distinguishing character of use rather than ownership. The public municipal domain includes the public streets and places and the boundary walls of the city, with the exception of the fortresses and batteries which continue to belong to the Makhzen. In case Tangier is formally neutralized these will be dismantled. The Makhzen will continue to own its real property and buildings devoted to state services distinct from the municipality. The Tangier public domain is inalienable except that the municipal council may change its classification with the approval of the property acquired or given and accepted by the municipality under specified conditions, and of such property of the public domain as shall be declassified.

In the original scheme the officials were to consist of a president, an administrative commission and a municipal council. A president of the municipality and an assembly are now sufficient as a result of political rivalry among the interests of the powers dying with the passing of the Agadir incident into history. In 1911 it was contemplated that the president of the municipality would be named and revoked by the Makhzen, but chosen from the Moorish members of the municipal council. Such Moorish control would now defeat the international idea of the government and the president is to be elected by the assembly and preside at its sessions. His duties in general are those of a municipal executive and among many other tasks he is to present the annual budget to the assembly and issue highway and police regulations.

The assembly is the popular elective body, composed of 24 Moroccan members and 11 foreigners, representatives of the powers. The *amin* El Mustafad and the Mothasseb, Moorish territorial officers, are *ex-officio* members. The other Moorish members, one of whom may be a Jew, must not enjoy foreign protection. In the earlier scheme they had to fulfill the conditions necessary for a foreigner to be enfranchised, though they were to be appointed by the Makhzen. The foreign assemblymen are to be elected by enfranchised foreigners voting irrespective of nationality. The foreign assemblymen must be qualified as voters and not more than four of the same nationality can be elected. The assembly is renewable every three years. One vacancy, either among the Moors or foreigners, must remain unfilled, but when two vacancies have occurred, a complementary election may be held, if the plan of 1911 has been followed in the last form of Tangier's charter, the full text of which is not yet to hand.

The assembly is the legislative body of the international city, with the usual powers of such a body. Originally it was planned to have a much more complicated arrangement and to have an administrative commission above the assembly. It was to consist of the president and three vice-presidents nominated by the Makhzen from the members of the assembly, one of whom was to be a Moor and one a foreigner; the Mothasseb, the *amin* El Mustafad, a technical delegate from the sherifian department of public works and a medical man designated by the assembly. The commission was to be constituted within 15 days from the time of the first sitting of a new assembly, meet fortnightly in secret, and its chief duty was to name all heads of municipal services. No municipal employee may be dismissed without its decision. It was to draw up the police, hygiene and sanitary regulations which the president should promulgate as executive; decide on highway and other public service changes or extensions, which decisions were executory within two months unless countermanded by the financial authorities within that time. Necessary temporary measures could be taken.

All of these attributes now fall to the assembly, which is much freer from Makhzen control than the old commission, but which yet must observe many considerations due to the complicated French, Spanish and strictly international elements which must be satisfied. France being paramount in Morocco and Spain being the territorial neighbor of the Tangier internationalized zone, it is natural that police control should be divided. Under the Algeciras act the police control at Tangier was mixed, French officers being in charge of the urban police and the Spanish organizing and directing the force in the vicinity of the city. No distinction between urban and extraurban police longer exists. The distinction now is between military police, which are headed by a Spaniard, and the civil police, who are under the control of a Frenchman. France as representing the sultan naturally has a great interest in the administration of the city, which being Moslem is based in its native aspects upon Koranic laws. But Spain has the bulk of the foreign population, and Great Britain is greatly interested in Tangier's commerce. Moreover, Britain acts in a way as a mandatory of the other powers. So provision has been made for distributing administrative officers so that France shall have 33 per cent of the appointments, Spain 29 per cent and Great Britain 18 per cent, the discretion of the president and assembly being trusted with the other 20 per cent.

All Moslems, of course, will be tried before their own *kadi*, appointed by the sultan at the recommendation of the powers. But litigation may arise between a Moslem and foreigner, or more rarely between two foreigners. So a mixed court is provided along the lines of the international court in Egypt. It is to consist of two Frenchmen, one of whom will preside, two Spaniards, two Englishmen and one German. To make up for a Frenchman presiding, a Spaniard is to be public prosecutor.

It was quite impossible to leave the entire government to the elective assembly, in view of the complicated interests involved in Tangier's public works, which were built or are being built under the provisions of the Algeciras act. So a committee composed of 11 representatives of the powers and one of the sultan was established to insure the international character of the administration and to protect all national interests. Under ordinary circumstances it is likely that this committee will be somewhat ornamental.

One of the pleasant things about the international city is the luck it has had with its debt. France absorbed Morocco very largely by the process of insisting on improvements that were valid as improvements, but not wanted by the country, loaning money to carry them through and then working into the administration to protect the investment. Before Agadir the whole Moroccan customs were mortgaged to France and collected by Frenchmen. To give Tangier a fair start as an international city, she freed the city's resources from all monetary claims that it was possible to relinquish. She exacted no pound of flesh. All strictly legal claims,—a share in the war indemnity, for instance,—were canceled. Tangier starts its financial life with far less indebtedness and financial disadvantage than had been expected. France has even given up a legitimate claim to supervise the city's finances in the interest of the sultan, and the city thereby becomes financially autonomous. She and Spain have retained only the right to exact special permission if Tangier should wish to levy special duties on imports or should desire to alienate Makhzen lands. As the bulk of Tangier imports are destined for the Spanish or French zones beyond, the reasonableness of the first stipulation should be apparent. As Makhzen lands are subject to Moslem, which is to say Koranic, law, the necessity of guarding native susceptibilities explains the second stipulation.

It is, however, the foreign electoral rights that are most interesting in this international city. Electors must be 25 years of age; not have been convicted under a penalty involving loss or diminution of civil rights under national law; have resided at Tangier at least two years; and be owners or occupiers of a house or apartment of which the rental value has been fixed by the administration of the urban tax at a sum of at least 120 *pesetas hassani* ($24) per month. "Officials of the Moroccan state, consulates, posts and telegraphs and of the public services of the Makhzen who are not Moorish subjects," said the earlier document, "are not restricted to the conditions of residence fixed in the preceding article for the exercise of electoral rights. But they must prove, except in the case where they live in the building where they perform their duties, that they are owners or occupiers at Tangier within the conditions specified in that article."

Every year the voting list is to be revised by a special commission composed of each nationality. The list will be posted two weeks and decisions on objections or observations concerning it must be made within a month. A committee made up of existing officials will prepare the first list.

Nineteen articles are devoted to the conduct of elections, the details being devoid of special interest. The voting booth is to be open of a

Sunday from 10 a. m. to 3 p. m. at the office of the municipal assembly, the officials in charge being representatives of the foreign nationalities in the assembly. Casting of the ballot must be in person. It is provided that no one is elected in the first instance unless he has obtained "1, the absolute majority of the votes cast; 2, a number of votes equal to one sixth of that of the electors registered. If several candidates obtain the same number of votes, the election goes to the oldest."

These provisions appear impossible of execution until one recalls that voting is to be on national candidates, and then they indicate that diversity of national representation would certainly result from them. If a second balloting is to be held the next Sunday, a relative majority rules.

"Every elector has the right of arguing the total or partial nullity of the electoral operations. . . . The municipal council determines as a court of last resort on the said claims in the first sessional court held after the elections." That provision should go far toward satisfying many foreign susceptibilities.

Since Tangier first came into the realm of international politics it has had a hard time. Throughout the period from 1901 to 1911 when the Moroccan question assumed the character of a European war cloud, Tangier as the headquarters of the Moorish department of foreign affairs and the residence of the foreign diplomats was the center of Moroccan affairs, and Moroccan affairs often engrossed the whole world. The diplomatic battles that were fought out at the Kasbah or in the pleasant villas that were the homes of the ministers from Europe were noteworthy and would make a book in the telling. But they are past, and it speaks well for European diplomacy that the old battlefield of the diplomat is now become a real city of the nations, the object of the creation being frankly the good of the municipality and the prosperity of its people.

THE VALUE OF MUNICIPAL EXHIBITS

BY LENT D. UPSON[1]

"GET the Hook,"—three words of no special significance, yet when placed upon a chart above a six-cent hook for which the city of New York paid 60 cents, did more to stimulate public concern in methods of government than would 100 municipal reports, replete with questionable statistics. With this feature at the first municipal exhibit, held in New York City in 1908, was begun a new method of making municipal government a concrete reality to the man on the street.

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[1] Director, Dayton bureau of municipal research.

In this period of the open shutter in public affairs, the most perplexing problem of municipal administration is that of interesting the citizens even in special programs, not to mention familiarizing them with the ordinary details of local government. The extraordinary progress in methods of sanitation, finance, corrections and other municipal functions, necessitates, that government continuously inform the taxpayers and secure their co-operation, if governmental measures are to keep pace with the possibilities or even the necessaries of present day life. For example, in a western city "the summer hump" in the death rate of babies has been practically eliminated by adequate health service; yet the public is only slowly becoming reconciled to the visiting nurse, and beginning to learn that this work is a legitimate public function. Concretely, the activities of the city can only keep pace with the social-mindedness of the citizens.

Realizing the cumbersome reports filled with unintelligible and inaccurate statistics not only fail to arouse the citizen, but destroy potential interest, the bureau of municipal research, in 1908 hit upon the happy thought of presenting new needs and old ideas to the New York public in visualized form. The above mentioned "Get the Hook" chart was only one of hundreds of such plain statements illustrated, which impressed upon John Smith, in primer language, the way his money is being spent by officials he helped elect.

Since the first experiment in New York, followed by two exhibits financed by the municipality itself, this novel publicity method has been used successfully in practically every section of the country. They are not political but economic, designed to show as a physical budget lesson, the use of public funds whether spent for a cake of soap or a million dollar water plant; to kill disease germs, or for a modernized fire division. Not only through figures made intelligible by comparative charts and photographs, but by the actual operation of city departments, is the public educated in the prevention of graft and waste, and in community activities and community needs. Citizens who have never been in a fire house, see in actual use the delicate instruments which protect them from fire waste, are impressed with the relative costs of oats and gasolene as motive power for fire apparatus, and learn that fire protection is a most expensive function, necessary because of public indifference and common carelessness. The citizen who has quarreled with the department over a water bill can here definitely visualize the annual personal cost of a leaky faucet and the immense public extravagance of leaky mains.

Truly, administrators may color their exhibits from personal interest but this is not less possible with printed city reports. The exhibitor cannot keep the public from learning how departments are operated and from comparing their operations with the methods of others. Again, the exhibitor cannot but secure a stimulation for his own work, from the interest which another citizen may show in how that work is done. On the whole, there are no axes which can be sharply ground, nor cheap politics to play,—it is simply carrying out the idea that a citizen "who knows" will not cheat himself nor allow himself to be cheated by the man he has placed in public office. Any citizen with sufficient interest and half his lunch hour to spend may, through this opportunity, learn what the city is accomplishing with the taxpayer's dollar and what it has planned to do in the year or years to come.

The expansion of the exhibit idea has been notable. Out of the little show held in New York in 1908, under private auspices, which 62,808 persons attended, came the appropriation of $25,000 for the first New York exhibit in 1910. Here 45,000 square feet of space in three floors was taken up with 350 booths which had an elementary demonstration of how the operating budget of $163,000,000 a year was spent and incidentally why $200,000,000 was being requested for the year following. In the first two days 100,000 visitors had seen the exhibit, and the total number for the whole period was over 1,000,000. The attendance the year following was even larger than this, 700,000 school children receiving personal invitations to be the guests of the city.

The second largest shows after the New York exhibition were those held in Cincinnati n 1912 and 1913. The first of these was to urge upon the public the necessity for an increase of taxes, if even the ordinary functions of government were to be continued, not to mention the social and welfare activities which the progressive administration had added. The second exhibit was again devoted almost entirely to the idea of interesting the public in the support of the advance measures of government which had been instituted. Both of these exhibits were open only two weeks, during which time an average of 150,000 people attended and each cost approximately the same as the 1300-page annual reports published by the city.

Cincinnati had for a score of years been maintaining in office, men who did not believe in the publicity of governmental affairs. It was therefore believed that a determined campaign of advertising would be necessary to arouse public interest in this new form of city reporting. Speeches were made before every organization that would listen; interested merchants placed slips advertising both the exhibit and the city's tax needs in their monthly statements; each water bill carried into the home a label telling the story; and street car advertising was used extensively during the time of the show. An effort was made to interest the ministers of the city in the fact that if the social work of the city was to be efficiently advanced the administration must be supported in the demand for public funds. As a result nearly one half of the clergy in the city preached a sermon on the relation of the church to unmet community needs, and many more carried announcements of the opening of the exposition, in the church calendars or announced the event from the pulpit.

During several hours each day the congestion was so great that the purpose of the show was in a measure defeated. There was with one exception no music, nothing dramatic, nothing given away, yet in the evening automobiles were parked for a block in front of the hall, and millionaires, laborers, politicians and reformers rubbed shoulders, in an effort to see where their tax dollars were going. Thousands of school children came in classes with their note books. Urged by substantial prizes for the best essays on how the school child could help the city government, the exhibit became a matter of study, rather than of idle curiosity. In place of text-book theories, the municipality suddenly became a reality of streets and lighting; of big mercantile projects; of extensive charities; of a management marked with both great efficiency and inefficiency. Public officials became interesting men who were more than willing to explain the details of their departments, and whose interest in their work was augmented by the public interest in it.

The educational value of this exhibit may be seen in the attitude of the public to the proposal for an increased tax, which having been granted by a bare majority the previous year, was renewed by a vote of almost two to one. But whether this levy had been granted or not, the public cannot but have been favorably impressed with the fact that there has been a municipal "show down," cannot but take a keener interest in matters of their intimate concern.

At least with thousands of school children, there will be the memory that at one time their city took them into its confidence, establishing a precedent which public opinion may demand to be followed.

In more recent times some notable exhibits have been held in New York City, Pittsburgh, Hoboken, Jersey City, Cincinnati, Ossining, The Oranges, New Jersey, Dobbs Ferry, New York, Springfield, Massachusetts, and Westfield, New Jersey.

Aside from the direct contact of the citizen with the exhibit, such a program affords methods of municipal publicity which can be secured from no other source. One finds here hundreds of citizens thinking of the same subjects in the same terms. It is self-evident that they will think more intensely, more vividly, more earnestly, as a group than they will as individuals. Such a show invariably moves the city hall from the last page of the newspaper to the front page. Prominent people who must be adequately reported, come to make speeches at the noon hour and in the evening; politicians of both sides make use of it; nearby cities send their officials who must carry home the impression of better government and the stimulus of interest. In Cincinnati the exhibit justified the personal invitations of prominent citizens and the invitations to out-of-town men of prominence. The result was a large amount of out-of-town publicity which worked its way back and had a local influence through the heightening of local pride. The preparation of an exhibit itself has a value in the increase of the number of sentiment centers in the interest of better government. The fight is conducted from a score or hundreds of points instead of from the mayor's office. Every employee whose work is described becomes a missionary whether he wants to or not. One of the most interesting phases of the New York and Cincinnati work was the pride of the departmental employees in the activities of their own departments shown in the exhibit. Emphasis has already been given to the possibility of enlisting the interest of a large number of civic and private agents who can contribute to the city's efficiency: improvement associations, churches, schools, women's clubs, all of whom can be reached to help the city, without regard to partisan interest.

Originally the municipal exhibit was a presentation of the activities of the municipality as a whole. It has now developed to a point where certain phases of municipal and social work are being even more commonly exploited, particularly those of welfare and hygiene. Perhaps this is because these phases of work are most important and are less appreciated by the public. The complete development of this field, however, has not yet been reached and it is to be anticipated that the time will shortly come when every progressive city will place before the public a picture of city work in simple, interesting and comprehensible terms. It is then that we may expect efficient citizenship to become a proper factor in efficient government.

UNEMPLOYMENT IN OUR CITIES

BY FRANCES A. KELLOR[1]

New York City

WITH the possible exception of Miss Addams, who could not keep any subject possibly dry, not even statistics, this seems to be a competition in dry subjects. I think, however, I am going to be the only one who can really make good on that proposition. I regret exceedingly that the mayor of my city is not here to-night. Had he been here he would have told you of the very interesting experiment which New York City has started,—a municipal employment exchange, which has a men's department, a women's department, and a juvenile department for directing youth into industry. It is now forming a committee for the purpose of taking up the whole subject of unemployment, not only the labor exchange, but it is contemplating the use of its police as information centers for unemployed. In other words, the man out of a job can go to a policeman who will direct him to a place where he can find one, if that job exists. It is also organizing in connection with its municipal lodging house a social service committee, the first of its kind in the country. The usual method with these lodging houses is to let the men and women go through day after day without trying in any way to rehabilitate them. We found from our study last winter that at least 40 or 50 per centum of the men in the lodging places out of a job really wanted to work. We propose to have a social service committee take those men in hand and try to readjust them to society.

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[1] Vice-Chairman of the committee for immigrants in America.

In discussing unemployment to-night, I am going upon three assumptions:

1st. That there is work in America, and that its industries are in good condition.

2d. That unemployment is primarily the business of industry to remedy, as it relates to employables, and of charities as it relates to unemployables, a division we have never clearly made in America.

3d. That the business of government is to supplement the work of industry, to supervise and to regulate it.

I am dividing my subject into two fields: first, a very brief description of present methods; and second, a program in which industry, government, civic organizations, and the average citizen can participate.

We must keep in mind that, however broad and complicated the situation may be, it is the single individual and the single job that is being dealt with.

The subject of employment may be divided into three main fields. First, the labor market; second, the facilities for directing workers into industry; and third, the facilities for relieving unemployment.

Almost every market in America is adequately managed except labor. The present methods in the labor market are, first, what we call direct employment, which is advertising and answering advertisements in the newspapers, answering and issuing circulars, and the old way of putting a sign in your window and letting men and women looking for "Boy Wanted" or "Woman Wanted" make personal application at the office. The greatest agency through which unemployed people obtain employment is through the private employment agencies for unskilled labor. We have the general labor agencies which handle the great bulk of unskilled labor for men and women, the shipping agency which deals with the immigrants. We have the intelligence offices which deal with domestic labor. Most of the women who are here know the conditions of those agencies. There are the agricultural agencies, which are the most unorganized because agriculture is the most unorganized of all the employments; and we have the political agencies which still direct a large percentage of the employed of America. In addition none of these private agencies of which there are some five thousand throughout the country, exchanges information, none of them co-operates in any way although all charge a very high fee. We have also the agencies for industry, and the employer's association.

The Federal government provides a Division of Information for immigrants. State employment bureaus number about twenty-one, and we have municipal employment bureaus, of which there are about twenty-four.

In addition to all this, we have a number of philanthropic and civic agencies, first, those that take care of the normal workers, who are both able and willing to work, and those that deal primarily with children, such as the vocational bureaus, and those that deal with handicapped persons, who have to have some special work done for them. But generally our labor market is thoroughly disorganized, without co-operation, without system, although perhaps one third of the unemployment is intercity and interstate.

The next most important problem is the directing of workers into industry, first, for children. There has been a considerable growth in the last few years in the subject of vocational guidance. A number of public schools already have committees. We find if we cannot start the children right, if they are maladjusted as soon as they begin, that they get into blind alley trades, and later become the drifters and the "hoboes."

Now, in addition to the children we have another problem,—the newly arrived immigrants. Our present system is this,—the immigrants come in at our ports, of which you have one here. They are allowed to go from that port without any inquiry whatever being made as to their previous occupation, or their training. The result is that practically all of them, both men and women, go into the cauldron of unskilled labor, from which many of them never get out. You find the tailor working in the trench, the engineer acting as a waiter in some hotel, and you find most of the women staying in housework, although some of them are very skilled needle women. That is an illustration of the maladjustment. The question of relieving unemployment is one of the things which we will have to face this winter. The unusual condition existing because of the war makes not the normal handling of labor the immediate problem, but the actual relieving of unemployment is the vital thing.

We have, first, the question of whether we can stimulate public works by the government; second, whether we can get the states to continue their highway work, in building aqueducts and other improvements; third, whether the cities will not issue bonds for the purpose of doing the work which is necessary to be done.

The next important step is the regulation of industry, the dovetailing of casual employment, so that some may work three days a week, or every other week so that others may be employed, and also the planning of city work.

I want to show you how very wasteful our present method is. Take, for instance, the dovetailing of seasonal work. The railroads know in October or November that they are going to lay off a certain number of men. They know that these men are going to be employed in the ice fields later. But there is no co-operation between the ice companies and the railroads on employment, though there is on the question of rates. If those men were sure of jobs, it would save them from coming all the way back to the city, getting their positions through an employment agency, and spending a considerable part of their money in the city, and going back to the other industry very much demoralized.

In addition to the regularizing of industry, we have the problem of the temporary shelter, and the aid of the unemployed. Unfortunately, many of our cities have no municipal lodging house. Supplementing that work is the work of philanthropy. In New York, the churches of the city are planning to provide extra accommodations for the numbers of unemployed that the municipal lodging houses cannot take care of. The practise of having the unemployed stay in the jails is most demoralizing.

We have a number of experiments which are being made at the present time. Baltimore, perhaps, has already taken them up. We have the sewing rooms for the unemployed women. We have one sewing room in New York where a number of women are employed, making bandages for the Red Cross. They are not only doing that, but they are making their medical supplies, giving employment to these women. I understand that Philadelphia is going to improve upon that plan by providing work in the factories, having them make the supplies for the war, instead of having them made in philanthropic sewing rooms, thereby enabling the factories to keep open.

I have tried to outline very briefly the general problem of unemployment. I want to leave with you a program, because the most helpful thing about any problem is a practical program. The different cities can co-operate with the philanthropies and with the Federal government in carrying it out, and we need a national program to deal with a national situation. Baltimore can be one of the cities. The average citizen can help greatly in carrying this out.

1. Publication of census returns on employment (1910). It is stated that these are not to be printed, because the United States has no money to publish them. We have to use reports 14 years old when all our other information is but four years old. Any letter to the government authorities in Washington asking for the publication of these records will help.

2. A classification of the employable and unemployable, with suggestion of practical measures for care of employables by industry and of unemployables by relief or special industries. At the present time we ask industries to carry the burden of the unemployables, including the defective who are not able to compete in the average business organiza-

tion, while at the same time we ask philanthropy to carry the burden of the employables. The first step toward an adequate solution must be the proper division of these two groups.

3. The organization of the labor market by:

(a) Establishment of Federal Employment Bureau to act as clearing house for state and municipal bureaus, and to handle the reserve labor supply and intercity and interstate unemployment.

(b) Extension of Federal Division of Information as a national agricultural labor bureau, and urging of rural organizations to establish efficient centers to co-operate and compete with industrial labor agencies. We ask the question of why it is that farmers cannot get labor from New York City. There are 300 employment agencies maintained by the industries and 15 for farm hands. The farmers have no means of reaching the source of supply, as these agencies are mostly run in connection with saloons and attract the "bums" of the city.

(c) Revision of agreement between transportation lines, cattle exporters and bureau of animal industry by which shippers, and not outside agencies, hire men and establish the conditions. One of the greatest commentaries upon the unemployment situation to-day is that the Bureau of Animal Industry in Washington specifies the number of cattle that may go on a ship, the amount of space to each head, the water supply, etc., while they make absolutely no provision whatever for the comfort or protection of attendants that go with the cattle. The hardships of the men on these cattle ships are appalling.

(d) Federal and state regulation of private agencies according to accepted standards, with reports, to enable government to know and direct labor distribution. Nearly all of the 5,000 agencies do an interstate business. They are regulated either by the state, or by the municipality, with the result that a man drafted in New York and stationed in Texas has no redress against the New York agency unless he can get back to press his complaint.

(e) Establishment of municipal bureaus to handle local work and to clear through Federal clearing house agencies, gradually eliminating state agencies, as the state is not an available unit for distribution and cannot be politically administered. Maryland has a free employment bureau. It had a very small appropriation. I think last year $500, and practically none this year. Therefore, you have on your statute books a law which requires a state official to operate a free bureau, and the state has provided no funds in order to enable him to fulfil his oath of office. That is one of the things which Maryland should have corrected.

(f) Establishment of local clearing houses among (1) philanthropic agencies; (2) civic agencies; (3) religious agencies; (4) commercial agencies. Each group to establish a local clearing house for its own use to facilitate matching positions and applicants and to co-operate with municipal bureaus; such local clearing house centers to co-operate with Federal agencies in intercity and interstate work.

What happens now is this,—a half a hundred churches or civic societies, are all engaged in finding work for the same people. There is no co-operation, no clearing house, no way of knowing what others are doing. One organization will have a half a dozen applications for employees, and another may have a half a dozen applications for positions. There is no way of matching them at the present time. We have started in New York as part of our practical scheme, a clearing house among the private agencies. We are trying to get the church agencies to do the same thing. If we can get the different agencies working together through a clearing house plan, it will remove the burden from the unemployed. The greater number of agencies, the greater burden to the unemployed, because they are paying more than one fee, when they might go to some central agency, and be advised of the situation.

(g) Systematizing of want advertisements in newspapers and window signs, so as to eliminate waste in applications, consuming the resources of unemployed. An advertisement appears in the paper that a dish washer is wanted. At five o'clock there will be 100 or 200 men in line. That line will continue all day long and sometimes be renewed the next day. We have solved many problems much more difficult. Our railroad problems have been much more complicated. We should devise some way by which we can eliminate that enormous waste in time and in strength and in hope and constant disappointments due to answering advertisements already answered.

(h) Elimination of the padroni and substitution of paid employees—housing and supplies to be under the direct control of such employees—or company or contractor—and the boarding boss eliminated as a labor agent. Don't make the mistake of trying to regulate the padroni. It can't be done. The only way is to *eliminate* him as between the employer and the employee. He is now responsible to neither.

(i) Separation of the sale of liquor and furnishing of jobs; decrease in disturbance of the market by political manipulation of private business jobs by political leaders. I don't believe any of you realize the extent to which the saloon is both a labor broker and a lodging house. We found last winter in our investigation one night 1400 men sleeping in the rear rooms of saloons. They were in debt to those saloons. When they got a job they had to pay back the favor by patronizing them. We could not ask those saloons to close their doors as there was no provision made for sheltering the men who would have been turned into the streets.

The same thing is true of the saloon as a labor broker. We found that the men who could not get a position were regarded as wards of the saloon, and the policeman was interested in voting those men at election time.

It ought to be stopped. But we cannot break it up unless we provide something else.

4. In addition to organizing the labor market there is the question of the relief of unemployment by:

(a) Development of public works, including reclamation of lands, afforestation, military training, etc.

(b) Planning of regular governmental work to cover dull seasons and meet the needs of casual and seasonal laborers.

(c) Dovetailing of seasonal work and direct distribution from one industry to another by business regularization of work in industries.

(d) Establishment of municipal lodging houses for temporary care of unemployed and creation in connection therewith of social service committees, to render personal service, outfit those for whom there are jobs, and to connect the men and women individually with social and philanthropic agencies that can help them get their foothold.

5. Study of unemployment insurance and its adaptability to American conditions and institutions. We are likely to get, because unemployment insurance in England has been so successful, a number of unbaked insurance bills relating to this subject. The success of the English system depends upon two things. First, their admirable system of labor exchanges with interdistrict reports; and second, labor organizations. We have neither in such a degree in this country, that would enable us at this time to adopt the unemployment insurance system now used in England.

6. Vocational guidance committees and bureaus to direct more intelligently children entering occupations, and to direct newly-arrived immigrants.

I have tried to give you some suggestions to-night as to a national program, because doubtless the National Municipal League from time to time will be appealing to you to help it to carry out this program in the various philanthropic organizations.

MUNICIPAL EMERGENCY HOMES

BY EDWIN A. BROWN[1]

Denver, Colorado

NEVER in the history of our nation have the serious problems of life with such strength of demand confronted us as in the present time. Out of the many, one of the most ponderous and uncertain questions which must be settled, is our problem of destitution.

When the harvests of summer are gathered and we stand face to face with the coming of winter, and with an established national condition of 6,000,000 workless people and one fourth of that number homeless and moneyless, we cannot help but cry out for more light to determine the truth of a question which is so difficult of solution.

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[1] Author of the widely read book "Broke" (The Man Without the Dime).

It is encouraging to note that the signs of our times are filled with prophecies and accomplished efforts to obviate this social evil—and many others—through the physical and mental endeavors of our many thoughtful, earnest workers for the public good whose dreams are for political, social and economic justice.

During five years in a personal constructive social study throughout our country to influence our various municipalities to build and support free municipal lodging houses—or municipal emergency homes as I prefer to call them (it means more and sounds better)—two years of that study was made as a homeless wage-earner in a shoulder to shoulder struggle with the migratory worker.

One of the most forceful pleas for complete, adequate municipal emergency homes came to me the winter of 1911 in Chicago. Almost without warning a blizzard of snow and wind drove down upon the city with such swiftness and fury that in 12 hours' time all traffic of street car service and railroad terminals was blocked. The officers of the many railroad companies on the instant were desperate in their efforts to get workers from the ranks of the 4,000 homeless, penniless, out-of-work men at that time. They hurried from one cheap beer joint to another, hiring men, and from Hogan's five-cent flop on the west side to Hinky Dink's on the south. The Illinois Central railroad company quickly employed several hundred men. But no sooner had the men begun work down on the snowbound tracks than they began to drop out; one by one, then several at a time, and a number were carried away by the city ambulance and in the police patrol. The overseers quickly discovered the men were suffering from malnutrition and must be fed before effectual progress could be made in raising the blockade and promptly marched the men to the nearby cheap restaurants and fed them.

These examples and a great many similar ones prove to society that the conservation of human energies is a vital necessity of to-day.

These men from these cities—and the condition is national—many of them existed days and even weeks on what they snatched from the free-lunch counters of the saloons and were forced to sleep under the most destructive conditions while awaiting an opportunity for work.

These examples of the storm which can be multiplied by many calamities of fire and flood and the various casualties continually confronting us, demand this human force. The battle is hard to win with a weakened army.

When we consider the many changes and demands of our everyday industries which force the laborer into periods of idleness, and as we view our social status, we plainly see a hundred honest reasons why the normal man or woman may find himself or herself penniless and homeless.

To this brief business appeal for municipal emergency homes the advice may well be given to promoters of great industries to realize that the man who has only his arms to dispose of is just as important a part in the wheel of industry as the propelling force, and to city governments to awaken to the truth of the necessity of co-operation with big business interests in conserving in every way the human force of labor as essential to a progressive nation. Not until these controlling powers are wise, broad, and human enough to see that the citizen who must work with his hands must have care, not abuse, will they have learned their first lesson of peace.

It is gratifying to those who have striven for civic betterment to see that in many cities the municipal emergency home has come, and has come to stay; that a great many tentative homes have been established, a few complete in character, and many planned in the past few years. The cities that have adopted them now wonder how they ever did without this humane institution.

In Denver it was a tooth and nail battle between the social welfare workers and the vice trust, political boss, and machine rule for a municipal lodging house, and not until the venomous cobra of special privilege had deceptively crept back for a renewal spring to create for their interest a more advantageous government to further their aim and ends and allowed for one short year a more humane political party to take control, was the municipal lodging house given to the city.

In 1912 Denver rented a well-built, substantial three-story building in a part of the city convenient for the laborer, for men only, installing 70 beds, bath, fumigating rooms, kitchen and dining-rooms and a free municipal employment office to be run in connection with the institution. The total cost for the complete furnishing of this building was $713.96.

On New Year's night 1913, Denver opened the doors of this its new experimental municipal emergency home. We say experimental, because the Denver true spirit—not always of the highest but of the best society—is *not* to do things by halves and Denver will eventually have a perfect and complete home in every detail.

However, this splendid little institution, as incomplete and inadequate as it is, has proven a veritable oasis in the desert of human adversities.

On the opening night every bed was occupied, and the figures of this institution show that in the first five months of its existence it sheltered 5,680 men, provided 10,943 meals and found work for 500 men, 80 women—it is a question in our minds if some of those women did not need shelter and food—all at a total cost to the city of $1,795; while the cost annually of maintaining Denver's two jails is $400,000 and $800,000 for arrests and prosecutions.

Very frequently the worthy superintendent of the municipal home receives letters from the once down-and-out man, now prosperous, letters filled with gratitude for the tiding over the rough place. In every city of our country men and women are forced into prisons for shelter where municipal emergency homes do not exist or are inadequate to fill the need, and no man forced to pass the night in a jail—even as a lodger—can keep his self-respect. It may be of interest at this point to note—and it speaks volumes for Minneapolis—that that city recently turned one of its prisons into a municipal lodging house.

In view of the above facts, can we help but raise the question, which of these two city institutions is the more valuable to the social welfare of a municipality?

There are but two municipal emergency homes to our knowledge in the United States to-day which approach completeness in character of construction. One in New York City and one in Buffalo, New York. We recommend every city contemplating this humanitarian function to inspect both of these homes.

Both of these wonderful homes are the outgrowth of tentative homes and the question where the trial home now exists is, not shall we abolish the home, but how can we perfect it?

The municipal emergency home should not be regarded as a charity in any sense of the word, for charity, like jails, makes a man lose his self-respect and that is fatal but should be looked upon as a privilege of labor by the right of toil, for the wage-earner who earns 25 cents and pays it for a bed is paying taxes just as much as the man who owns the building and the bed, and though he himself may be temporarily out of work and money, his brother worker in his line of trade or unskilled who have nothing but their knowledge and strength, as well as the small home owner, are doing their share toward the support of the city.

The moneyless wage-earner should not enter the municipal emergency home as a cringing dependent, but with head up, as a man with a civic right.

Progressive cities should not have a charity board, but every city should have a department of public service for labor.

A city should know the demands of its home in capacity and fill that requirement. Our greater cities each should have several complete perfect homes to fill the demands of the temporarily out of work poor, especially during the winter season.

To be brief, I take pride in referring any city to New York's municipal emergency home for technical plans as a guide, though I may add—if I remember rightly—it is lacking in a sitting-room, smoking-room and library, and above all else, a laundry, where guests may be given an opportunity to wash their clothing.

The municipal emergency home should be always open every hour of the day and every day of the year.

The question should not be if a man has a sin, but if he has a shelter from the night. There should be no lock on the door.

There should be no time limit for the honest man or woman. A blacksmith cannot shave a man nor a barber shoe a horse. The strong scrub woman cannot do the office work of the delicate girl, nor the delicate girl the arduous duties of the scrub woman,—they must wait for a place to fit in.

The work test is not in harmony with American freedom and study has proven it unscientific.

It should be governed by intelligent, God-inhabited people and kept completely out of politics and police control.

The progressive, humanely inclined citizens who are weary of being exploited by private charities and the niggardly, rich old skinflints who never contribute a penny toward helping the city that has enriched them; the citizens seeking relief through the revenue of general taxation by creating governmental agencies for the aid of their less fortunate brothers, and a purer, better social community; who have recognized that the municipal emergency home is one of the superior influences in a well-governed city, will find it a hard won victory in cities governed by the political boss and machine, especially where the public utilities are privately owned, as the brutal system of private monopoly has been to destroy, to keep in subjection by ignorance, superstition, and, if need be, cruelty, toward that element of society who must perfect the highways and build the city, the palace and the temple.

But where the government of a city is honestly and honorably administered, particularly where its public utilities are municipally owned, there will be little difficulty in getting the municipal emergency home.

Some cities hestitate where this establishment is not in tune with their ruling policies and try to frighten the citizens with the pessimistic declaration that it will "encourage idleness and pauperize the people."

Why not close our public hospitals (and it is more godly to prevent than to cure), our public libraries, our public parks, playgrounds, and all our benevolent public institutions if benevolence pauperizes the people, or lest some unworthy one creeps in.

THE LIQUOR PROBLEM—A BRIEF REPLY

BY DURANT DRAKE[1]

MR. KOREN'S paper in the July NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW[2] gives food for reflection to the advocates of national prohibition. Certainly the points he raises should be carefully considered. But as a dispassionate spectator, interested in the ethical aspects of such movements, and desirous of forwarding agreement upon the best methods of curing the great and obvious evils of the liquor traffic, I am disposed to question his conclusions. In a recent volume[3] I have discussed the pros and cons of the situation and favored the convergence of effort toward an ultimate national prohibition amendment. I should like to present here summarily some of the reasons why my study of the matter leads me toward this differing conclusion.

(1) We must admit that the anti-liquor crusade has had its "shadow side." Prohibitionists have assumed on too scanty evidence that we know more than we really do of the evils of "moderate" drinking. A one-sided and biased presentation of the facts has given the brewers a right to complain of unfair tactics. Experiments to date are more confusing in their results than the sweeping assertions in the prohibition handbooks would lead one to believe. It is to be hoped that the forthcoming publication by Professor Dodge of his experiments carried on in the Carnegie Nutrition Laboratory will clear up some of these points and give honest campaigners more reliable data. But after all, this one-sidedness and bias are universal wherever any great cause enlists enthusiastic support, and should be judged no more harshly than everybody's partisanship in politics and religion. An unconscious selection of the arguments in favor of one's own party or church or country is almost inseparable from any hearty loyalty, and is to be counteracted only by a widespread recognition all along the line that loyalty to the truth should come before all other loyalties. Scrupulousness in statement pays in the long run, since it leaves less likelihood of successful refutation. But the liquor-side has certainly been, in general, even farther from such a scrupulousness in campaigning; my observation of the discussion, and independent study of the evidence, leads to the belief that the prohibitionists have not, on the whole, seriously overstated their cause. The evidence is not all in yet, and they have in some particulars been over-ready to make use of insufficiently supported conclusions; but I strongly

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[2] Vol. iii, p. 505.

[3] *Problems of Conduct*, Houghton Mifflin Company.

suspect that the evidence will turn out to be quite as favorable to their cause as they have taken it to be.

(2) It is true, of course, that many politicians have come out for prohibition from motives of expediency, so that a legislative majority for it has not always expressed the actual convictions—or lack of conviction—of the legislating body. Prohibitionists have taken advantage of this fear of public opinion, and have not hesitated to threaten the political life of politicians who withstood them. But whether this is an immoral practice, as Mr. Koren intimates, depends upon whether representatives should be influenced by their own convictions only or by the wishes of their constituents. Considering the present average quality of our politicians, there is much to be said for the latter view. In any case, there is no way to prevent them from being influenced by those wishes; to forbid prohibitionists to utilize the force of public opinion, and to shield politicians from the pressure of those of their constituents who desire prohibition, would be to fail to use the weapon with which the political game is universally played, and to have them subject to the contrary pressure from those of their constituents who want liquor. No reform movement, as things now are, can afford to neglect this method of advancing its cause; and none, so far as I know, has scrupled to do so. It seems, then, rather flat for Mr. Koren to say of the anti-saloon cause that "its creed is coercion rather than persuasion, and its strength lies in its ability to make capital out of political cowardice" (p. 508). If the majority of a politician's constituents desire prohibition, is it not proper for them to make him aware of that fact as insistently as possible, and for him to heed that pressure? And if the fear of losing his job enters in, are we sure that we do not wish it to? If we are, why is the recall coming in so fast? Nor is it fair to say that "moral suasion as a means of betterment seems to have been relegated to the background" (p. 508). On the contrary, the campaign of education is being pushed in every state. But if Mr. Koren thinks that "moral suasion" alone will touch the heart of the average politician, apart from outside pressure, let him try to put through any reform in that way. There are, to be sure, fair and unfair tactics; it is well known that the liquor-trade has used the latter to no small extent; if the prohibitionists have, they are to be as severely condemned. But Mr. Koren adduces no evidence of corrupt practices. And the general method of bringing political pressure to bear upon politicians in a direction opposite to that in which their self-interest has hitherto pushed them seems to me undeserving of blame.

(3) It is undoubtedly true, for the reasons that Mr. Koren gives, that fewer voters desire national prohibition than the statistics concerning "wet" and "dry" territory would at first glance indicate. But no one need be alarmed lest prohibition be foisted upon an unwilling country through the juggling of figures. National prohibition cannot come

until a majority of the people believe in its necessity; however an occasional politician may be influenced, the voters at the polls are not going to vote away their right to buy liquor unless they believe that self-denial to be imperative for the banishing of a great evil. If the majority do so decide, there is nothing for the minority to do but to submit. For better or worse, we are committed to the principle of majority rule. And there is no more reason for speaking in this particular case of "the acceptance of the doctrine of force as the means of making men sober" (p. 516) than of a similar use of force in making men pay income taxes. All reforms have to be passed in the teeth of a violently protesting minority, which will be in some localities a large majority. But if orderly good government is to continue, such overruled minorities and local majorities must yield with good humor to the prevailing popular will until they can repeal by the regular methods the legislation which is odious to them. Whether or not, then, we believe in national prohibition, or a national divorce law, or national law against child labor, or what not, we have no right to blame those who are working for such laws; and if any such amendment can muster votes enough to pass, we must give our loyal allegiance to it while it stands on the statute books, without deeming our personal rights abused or our liberties unduly curtailed.

(4) Again, it is likely that a prohibition amendment would be poorly enforced in localities where the majority were against it. And such non-enforcement does indeed make for a general contempt of the law. So it is with the laws against disorderly houses. And yet the ablest students of the social evil do not believe in the repeal of those laws. Grave as is the harm of disrespect for the law, the harm of leaving great evils free from legal prohibition is still graver. Does any one suggest the repeal of anti-opium laws because they are violated on every hand? No, the existence of the law makes it, after all, easier to fight the evil, gives a certain vantage-point, has a definite restraining influence, and is of great educational value. Not all, indeed, but a good many, are actually deterred thereby. There would still be drinking, no doubt, under national prohibition, but can any one suppose that there would be as much? Would many of our friends and neighbors have home stills, or secretly buy smuggled liquors? Would you and I? It is begging the question to speak of the "shame of Maine"; that there has been as much sale of liquor in that state as there has been, under a prohibitory law, is shameful, indeed; but has there been as *much* selling of liquor as there would have been without that law? There certainly has *not* been as much. And with a *national* law the case would be very different. There would then exist no powerful liquor trade in neighboring states to push the sale, indeed no possibility of buying legally from across the border. It is obvious that national prohibition

would cause a great deal of illicit selling and smuggling, and some home distillation and brewing; but it is as obvious that it would cause a tremendous decrease in the total amount of liquor consumed in the country. To talk, then, of non-enforcement, is no argument. Laws that cross human passions and desires are always difficult to enforce; that fact is absolutely no reason for not passing the laws and doing our best to enforce them. Marriage laws are broken on every hand; shall we then legalize free love? Shall we legalize the free use of opium and cocaine? If you do not believe that the use of cocaine or of alcohol for their exhilarating effects is an evil, by all means say so, and fight restraining laws by all fair methods. But if the prohibitory laws are passed, against your judgment, you must obey them, or you are a traitor to free government. And you must not talk about non-enforcement, thereby encouraging others to disobey them, as if it were a legitimate form of registering protest. It is not a legitimate form. The patriotic citizen will not shrug his shoulders and speak of the impossibility of enforcing laws, he will help see to it that they *are* enforced—whether he believes in their wisdom or not; and he will vote for the prohibition of whatever he deems an evil, although he well knows that the mere passing of the law will not suffice to eradicate it. It is at least a step toward its eradication.

As a matter of fact, prohibitory laws are being, on the whole, better enforced than they used to be. And there is a growing sentiment, a genuine increase in conviction, as to the desirability of such laws. Whether that conviction is justified or not I am not here discussing. But what I wish to point out is that the only legitimate matter for discussion is whether or not liquor-drinking "in moderation" is an evil. If it is not, then a prohibitory law is a bad law, and we must oppose it by adducing experiments that show the value, or the harmlessness, of "moderate" drinking. If, on the other hand, the experiments seem to show that "moderate" drinking is a grave evil, then we must prohibit it, just as we prohibit opium and cocaine. And having prohibited it we must fight for the enforcement of the law.

The issues that Mr. Koren presents seem to me then side-issues, to be considered carefully, indeed, but having no bearing upon the real problem. That problem is complicated enough, heaven knows. But the sort of arguments that he raises against prohibitory laws would apply equally to prohibition of cocaine and opium, of child-labor, of gambling and indecent pictures—in other words, they don't apply at all. If the drinking of alcoholic liquors is absolutely and radically an evil, alcohol must go. And the prohibitionists, who sincerely believe that it is such an evil, are to be praised for using every legitimate means to banish it. I may add that I, personally, have been converted, not by their eloquence, but by my own disinterested study of the subject, to their view.

THE PITTSBURGH CIVIC COMMISSION

BY H. D. W. ENGLISH[1]
Pittsburgh

IT IS impossible for organizations like the Pittsburgh civic commission to "point with pride" to many definite results and work accomplished upon which their imprint may rest. Pioneers in civic enterprise seldom get credit for the foundations they have laid and upon which the superstructure must of necessity be carried on by others. This is especially true of an organization which must often fight the political powers that be. There can be no such words as "go along" in the vocabulary of an honestly conducted and voluntary organization made up of men who give their time and money for the public good.

The best work of a public commission is always done by way of education and suggestion. Otherwise too much pressure is at once met by the endeavor to gain political control of the organization, or the antagonism of public men who desire no help from any citizen. We prate about our democracy in cities—there is no place where there is so little of it. Let some good citizen who has a real interest in his city, go either to the council chamber or to an official in his native city, with some excellent suggestions. His prominence may save him from actual discourtesy, but both the scheme and himself will be looked upon with scant patience. The whole atmosphere of civic officialdom is expressed in the words, "Who's doing this?" The reason of course is obvious. We have permitted the impression to get abroad that the men we elect to office are public masters, instead of public servants.

A civic commission organized for the purpose of coaching citizens who aspire to office, so as to get clearly in their brains that they are servants, not masters, would have biblical backing for its existence and would be the best thing American cities could do at present. We might call it "the university of civic culture and democracy," and when men graduated their diplomas would be the best platform for civic campaigns. It is rather rough in a democracy to have to teach men that "public office is a public trust" and that he who would be a *real* master must first learn to be a *real* servant, but that is one of the most fundamental forward movements in civics we could make in America. The result may be summed up in a remark made by the burgomeister of a large German city some years ago. The writer had expressed both pleasure and surprise on the fact that, while keeping his city so splendidly clean and up-to-date in every particular, he at the same time had leisure for, and entire charge of, $50,000,000 in expenditure for improvements which would make his city a marked one, even among German cities. His answer was made in broken English—"My dear sir, I am building a city, not a machine." In Germany they make a man ruler over many cities, if they find he is public servant enough to rule over one.

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[1] President of the commission.

It is very hard to keep public spirited citizens on a commission like the Pittsburgh civic commission, for it is only after many years of work and education they occasionally get their suggestions or plans adopted, and these largely upon the understanding that such improvements are to be credited to the political machine in power, to be used of course as a political asset. This has been the greatest work of the Pittsburgh civic commission—it has effaced itself in order to get its suggestions carried out. When you can get 15 men to spend their money and time for years and permit the credit to go elsewhere, you are getting close to the ideal of the real public servant.

The present grade of the greatest improvement of the last administration is the grade given by the engineer employed by the Pittsburgh civic commission. One of the great thoroughfares which now carries the principal vehicle traffic to the East End of our city with a new, beautiful and artistic bridge will be found suggested and outlined by the commission. The art commission which is adding so much to the artistic beauty of public work in Pittsburgh was created by a bill drawn in the offices of the civic commission and followed by the secretary of the civic commission in every particular through the legislature until the governor's signature made it a law. The ordinance making it possible for our present excellent traffic regulations was drawn up in conjunction with the officers and engineers of the commission. The initiative for a commission form of government was initiated through a meeting of prominent business men called by the civic commission, which in turn called a mass meeting. The resolutions were written by the officers of the civic commission, and the secretary of the commission lived in Harrisburg until the bill was passed. Another organization had the credit largely. The proposed wall for keeping out floods and the filling in of many of the principal streets was suggested by the civic commission. The wall has received the endorsement of the flood commission, and a large number of streets were filled in by the last administration.

The great work, however, was for comprehensive city planning by an outside commission, B. J. Arnold, John R. Freeman and Frederick Law Olmsted, three of the leading experts in the country, were retained to outline constructive investigation into "the needs and limitations of the Pittsburgh industrial district in so far as its physical development can be effectively controlled by the action of the community." That report covered transportation, construction of thoroughfares and parks, water supply, sewage disposal, wharf treatment for floods, smoke prevention and building regulations. Detailed sketches have followed. Mr. Olmsted's report is a text book in Pittsburgh.

It is not the fault of the civic commission that the exhaustive report of Bion J. Arnold on the transportation problems of our city which cost the city $50,000, has not yet been used with good results to the city. The commission had retained Mr. Arnold, but gave over that engagement to the city at its request and his report should be the basis for Pittsburgh action, as was a report made by him to Chicago for its action. The unfortunate political conditions obtaining in Pittsburgh have not yet produced a man who could take that report and utilize it for the benefit of a long suffering citizenship. The facts given by Mr. Arnold in his report to Chicago was the basis of an entire change in that city's transportation problem. It is no reflection upon his splendid work that the powers in Pittsburgh failed to do likewise. To get facts which might change conditions in your street car system which affects the welfare of a million people for $50,000 makes that sum look small indeed.

Thus the work of the commission will find fruitage in the permanent improvements made in Pittsburgh for 100 years to come, long after the men who so unselfishly wrought have died. However, they are seeing many of their suggested improvements brought into existence even now. You have only to go over the city with one of the reports like "Pittsburgh Main Thoroughfares and the Down Town District" in your hands, to see how, by the suggestions of practical men, things somehow come to pass. This perhaps gives some idea of what such a commission can accomplish by untiring and unselfish devotion to the cause of civic advance, without hope of reward.

The difficulty, however, in going on with such work is at once apparent. When a commission does not get credit for the things done through such suggestions and powers of education, it usually goes to pieces on the financial rocks. You can't accomplish the splendid practical and constructive work done by the commission without a rather heavy expenditure of money. Mr. Andrew Carnegie has most graciously helped this commission by adding 20 per cent to all the money contributed by the people of Pittsburgh. The people of Pittsburgh naturally wanted results. They have gotten very many, but the credit has largely gone elsewhere. Raising money annually becomes more difficult.

The endowment of civic commissions made up of men who would give their time unselfishly to public work would be of incalculable good to any city. It presents a wonderful opportunity for men of wealth to make permanent civic spirit which must be fostered if our cities are to be what our great American nation has a right to expect. A citizen of Cleveland has started it. This beginning is well worthy of emulation in Pittsburgh.

One of the substantial improvements in which the Pittsburgh civic commission had a large share as mentioned above was that of the removal of the hump described by U. N. Arthur in the July, 1914, issue of the National Municipal Review (vol. iii, p. 547).

HOW TO MAKE STATE LEAGUES OF MUNICIPALITIES EFFECTIVE[1]

BY HERMAN G. JAMES[2]

Austin, Texas

THE first problems arising in connection with increasing the efficiency of state municipal leagues are perhaps among the simplest, though not by any means necessarily easy of solution. The first question naturally would be whether the unit of membership should be the municipality or its officials. It seems to me that for practical purposes it must be a combination of both features.

The unit so far as membership and voting rights are concerned should, in my opinion, be the municipality, for only by giving to the cities as such in their corporate and continuing capacity the character of members, can the continuity of the league itself be insured. Of course municipalities, like all other corporations, public or private, can act only through individuals and those individuals are the municipal officials. The active personal participation, therefore, can come only through the persons who act as agents of the municipalities. The simplest solution of the problem would seem to be that the municipalities, as such, should be the legal members, paying the dues and exercising the voting rights through their representatives or delegates, while all of the higher municipal officials should be regarded as the active participants in the co-operative work of the league.

In addition to the municipalities, which through their officers are or should be most interested in the activities of the league, there are other sources of help and co-operation which should not be neglected. These are the commercial clubs, civic clubs, libraries and other organizations and institutions interested in municipal welfare, as well as a number of individuals who, though not belonging to any such organization, have public spirit enough to wish to promote the cause of good city government.

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[1] See article on "The League of California Municipalities," by H. A. Mason, National Municipal Review, vol. ii, p. 111.

[2] Paper presented at the 20th annual meeting of the National Municipal League, Baltimore, November 18, 1914. Professor James in addition to holding a chair in the University of Texas is also secretary of the League of Texas Municipalities.

It seems self-evident that the effective support of these sources should be enlisted, and the conventional division of membership into active and associate members seems to furnish a convenient method of bringing these factors into play. Let the municipalities be the active members and exercise the voting privilege, let their officers be the principal participants in the official work of the league, but by all means encourage all non-official organizations and individuals to assist the league by contributions and to derive benefit therefrom by receiving its publications, by being invited to its meetings and by being encouraged to keep in close touch with the permanent officials of the league.

The question of dues presents somewhat more difficulty. It seems desirable, as will appear a little later, that the league should not be subject to interference by the state government. Appropriations by the legislature for the purposes of the league would, it is believed, almost invariably carry with them some such undesirable interference. So far as possible, therefore, the activities of the league should be supported by the membership dues, although a helpful co-operation in other ways on the part of the state authorities would undoubtedly result in much mutual benefit. We are, therefore, face to face with the problem of prescribing a membership fee small enough so that it will not be considered as a burden by the municipalities, and yet large enough to furnish the necessary funds for a valuable activity on the part of the league. Graduated membership dues for municipalities on the basis of their populations would seem to be a fair and logical arrangement, although it was objected to in the constitution of the League of Texas Municipalities, and was there replaced by a provision for one membership fee for cities under 5,000 and another fee for cities over 5,000, no matter what their size. It would probably be expedient in organizing a state league to put the membership fee at the lowest possible figure and by gradually enlisting the interest of cities through their officials and secretaries and by showing in what concrete ways the league may be of value to all cities in the state, to open up the possibilities of increasing the membership dues for the purpose of still further increasing the scope of activity of the league.

The problem of getting municipalities to join the league is also full of difficulties. It would not seem to be expedient to require by state law, as has sometimes been suggested, that all municipalities should join and pay their membership dues. In every state there will be a number of cities in which the officials are really anxious to take advantage of every opportunity for solving their problems and will, therefore, vote the membership dues without any kind of external pressure. If pressure must come, and undoubtedly in every state there will be many cities in which the governing body will not act in the premises except as a result of pressure, it would be better that such pressure come from within than from without. In other words, civic clubs and influential individuals in the city can be used to advantage in inducing the city officials to take the necessary action, and, it may be added parenthetically, such action on the part of unofficial agents would be more probable and more likely to be successful if those agents themselves had a connection with the league such as was indicated above. With the increasing size and effectiveness of the state league it will undoubtedly become less and less difficult to enlist further members.

The second group of considerations suggested in the program for this meeting, viz., those referring to meetings and publications, seem to present somewhat greater difficulties. With regard to the frequency of meeting, I believe it may be assumed that an annual meeting is all that can be hoped for. The expenses of holding the meeting and the travelling expenses involved would probably point to that conclusion and if it did not, I believe that the tradition in favor of annual meetings is so strong that any attempt to increase the frequency of such meetings would be doomed to failure. I am assuming here that the meetings should come at least once a year. The length of the meetings would perhaps be affected somewhat by the geographical conditions of the state. A meeting of municipalities in Rhode Island would not involve any great expenditure of time and money in the matter of attending, so that the question of making the meeting worth the expense of attending need not be considered, but if the state league is blessed, as is Texas, with a working area of 263,000 square miles, then it would seem desirable to make the meetings of sufficient length to warrant the expenditure of time and money involved in merely getting to and from the meeting place. Probably three days would represent the upper limit of efficiency.

With regard to the character of the program, my own feeling is that one of the chief benefits to be derived from such a gathering of municipal officials is the interchange of personal, practical experiences, and that very little of real lasting value is taken away from the hearing of learned and lengthy disputations, but that much may be gained from personal questions at a round table or informal discussion. For purposes of advertising, it is undoubtedly wise that one or two well-known experts along certain lines be secured to address the meeting as a whole. But sections for the different classes of municipal officers with suggested problems and a considerable amount of informal discussion seem to me to promise the greatest good from the conventions.

Publications by leagues of municipalities should fulfill a twofold purpose. In the first place, they should keep alive during the interval between the conventions the feeling of co-operation and common interest among the members of the league; in the second place, they should contain some information of real value. The emphasis of all such publications should be laid on the local aspect of general problems, that is, on those matters which interest the municipalities of the given state in particular. General publications, such as *The American City,* and the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, contain much information of value to all the cities, which need not be duplicated in the state publications; but discussions of the peculiar local problems and a comprehensive record of the activities of the various municipalities seem to justify at least a quarterly publication, if not a monthly journal. From the above indications of the character which in my opinion such publications should have, it will be seen that one publication for several state leagues (unless a number of small contiguous states face similar municipal conditions) or for all leagues in the United States, would not seem to be a crying necessity, nor fraught with much promise.

The third caption in the program for this discussion, viz., that of co-operation, opens up the most interesting problems of all. The various state organizations can undoubtedly be brought into co-operation through their permanent officers by a continual and sympathetic correspondence. National meetings of secretaries of such leagues would probably never bring together more than a very small proportion of such officers owing to the distances to be travelled, involving the expenditure of a very large amount of time and money, but within the state there are agencies with which these organizations of municipalities can very effectively co-operate. I refer particularly to bureaus of municipal research and reference. If they are located, as in my opinion they should be, in the state universities, the possibilities for co-operation are very manifest. The ideal arrangement would be to combine in one person the functions of permanent officer of the league and director of the municipal research and reference bureau. For, if the state league attempts to do any successful research or reference work, and if the research bureau, on the other hand, fulfills its obligations to the cities of the state in which it is located, they will inevitably cover the same ground at a considerable duplication of energy and money, and without the possibility of either agency rendering satisfactory service except with the continuing aid of the other organization. Common sense and economy, therefore, point not only to co-operation, but to identification of such instrumentalities of municipal improvement. Under such a plan as the one just suggested, the expense to the league of municipalities of keeping a permanent paid secretary would be either eliminated or greatly reduced, while the expenses of a bureau of municipal research and reference, so far as the activities in the state were concerned, could very well be borne in part by the municipalities which derive the primary benefit therefrom.

Such a bureau of municipal research and reference organized for these purposes can come to full fruition only when it contains on its staff real experts in all the various municipal activities represented in the cities of the state. What a splendid opportunity this would afford to the smaller municipalities to engage at a relatively small expense really expert, disinterested advisors in place of private individuals, whose aim too often is not to serve the municipality by which they are employed but to derive the greatest pecuniary benefit for themselves.

THE CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN MAYORS ON "PUBLIC POLICIES AS TO MUNICIPAL UTILITIES"

BY CLYDE LYNDON KING[1]

Philadelphia

THE conference of American mayors on public policies as to municipal utilities, held in Philadelphia, November 12–14, 1914, was distinguished by five important features: First, a balanced program which presented the relation of the city to its municipal utilities from practically every point of view; second, the wide attendance thereon by mayors, official delegates from cities, aldermen, public service commissioners and delegates from civic associations and universities; third, the prevalence of a sustained demand for reserving to each city full power to municipalize its public service institutions at will without undue legal, financial or constitutional handicap; fourth, the rising resentment in American cities against the state public service laws that have deprived the cities of adequate powers over their own most important services, and fifth, steps were taken toward the final establishment of the Utilities bureau through which cities may co-operate on utility matters.[2]

On the program were experts such as Delos F. Wilcox on fundamental planks in a public utility program; Louis D. Brandeis on interlocking directorates; Edward W. Bemis on some present-day issues in regulation; Frederic C. Howe on municipal ownership—the testimony of foreign experience, and M. N. Baker on public ownership and operation of water-works.

The corporation point of view was ably presented by Nathaniel T. Guernsey on the regulation of municipal utilities, Francis T. Homer on holding companies, Charles Day on a constructive policy for public service corporations and Clarke M. Rosecrantz on objections to public ownership and operation. Numerous and valuable were the contributions of city officials. Mayors Blankenburg, Harrison and Mitchel presided at the three sessions of Friday. Mayor Hocken, of Toronto, discussed the Toronto hydro-electric plant, Mayor-elect Raymond, of Newark, presided on Saturday evening, and Mayor Baker, of Cleveland, presented Cleveland's distinctive contribution to public ownership and operation. The publicly-owned and operated utility plant in America was presented by Paul Winchester, of South Norwalk, Connecticut, and C. W. Koiner, of Pasadena, California. Ray Palmer, commissioner of gas and electricity, Chicago, presented a valuable paper on municipal lighting rates; Alderman Charles E. Merriam, of the University of Chicago, discussed Chicago's need for control by its own electorate of its own public services, and Robert Crosser, member of Congress, presented the reasons why he believed in public ownership and operation. Three public service commissioners addressed the conference, John M. Eshleman, president, California Railroad Commission, Hon. Halford Erickson, member of Railroad Commission of Wisconsin, and Hon. Milo R. Maltbie, member of Public Service Commission for the First District, New York, while Hon. Charles A. Prouty, of the division of valuation of railways of the interstate commerce commission, presided at the Saturday luncheon.

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[1] Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania.

[2] NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 751.

On the whole, the discussions were pointed, well supported, and will, when published, present a distinct contribution to this ever-present problem. Those in attendance upon the various sessions were convinced that a resolution endorsing ownership and operation of the city's public services could easily have been passed. In lieu thereof, however, resolutions were passed, stating the attitude of the conference to be:

> That no general conclusion be formulated upon the abstract question of municipal ownership, but rather we express our judgment to be that municipalities should be given, in all instances, the power to municipalize public utilities, the expediency of its exercise being at any time and place, and with regard to any particular utility, a matter for local determination.

From cities on all hands came protests against the extreme state laws which were depriving cities of practically all control over their most important public services. This sentiment was voiced by the second clause of the convention's recommendations which read:

> That we make no general determination as between state board and local or home rule regulation of public service corporations. That we do, however, declare that the franchise-making power should in all cases be local, that municipally owned utilities should be subject to local control only, that in large cities local regulation is plainly to be preferred, and that, in all cases, the principle of home rule should be preserved by at least leaving it to the people of a city, of whatever size, to determine whether they desire to act for themselves or to call in a state board, if one exists, either to regulate or to aid the local authorities in regulating privately owned local utilities.

The Utilities bureau, discussed in the October issue of this Review, was heartily indorsed in the resolutions adopted, as also in many of the addresses and in the conversations of groups of men interested in the public side of utility questions. The resolution read:

> That we endorse the idea of the establishment of the Utilities bureau, as a nation-wide intercity agency for bringing the combined ability and experience of all our cities to the service of each city which may face a public utility problem. Through it, we meet the combination of private interests with a combination of public interests, and to the specialized experts which private interests thus mass in defence of one another, we oppose the skill, experience, and resources of the united cities of the country. We recommend that the trustees of the Utilities bureau proceed to its further organization, outlining a plan by which its support may be assured, and its services made available. In this connection, we suggest, for the consideration of the trustees, that an office be provided, records kept, experts be employed, and that cities which can legally do so, contribute on some equitable basis to the expense of the bureau, in excess of its earning, when in the service of cities actually using its facilities in the solution of particular problems.

It is significant that at the same convention city officials both demanded greater local control over the city's serving companies and recognized the need not only for a wider control but also for national co-operation in order that the cities may be able to cope with the nationalization of utility companies. That there has been such nationalization on the part of serving companies, no one can deny. It was equally apparent that there as yet has been no active co-operation even among cities of the same commonwealth. It is to be hoped that through this new spirit of co-operation results can be secured of definite value to the serving companies through stability of investments and adequacy of returns and to the cities themselves through adequacy of service at reasonable rates.

HOW CAN WE WORK THE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE INTO MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT?

BY EDWARD A. FITZPATRICK [1]

Madison, Wisconsin

THE problem of getting the university graduate into municipal government is a phase of a very large problem. The Chicago *Tribune* in an editorial named the larger problem as "White Collar Poverty" and discussed it as follows:

> A new poverty is springing up in the United States—a poverty of the educated classes. We have been and still are especially proud of the educational opportunities which this country affords to its humblest citizens. Many of our universities are filled with poor men's sons. Legends have been woven about the boys who "worked their way through col-

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[1] Secretary, committee on practical training for public service.

> lege" tending furnaces and waiting on table. It is these boys whom we idolize, whose grit and perseverance we hold up as an example to the young, that are now adding a new problem to our already overburdened social scheme. These men form what might be termed the "intellectual proletariat" of the country.

This editorial goes on to say that it has been pointed out by an eastern investigator that there are over fourteen hundred college-bred men in New York City who are tramps and criminals. The deaths in the Bowery lodging houses frequently reveal the facts of misspent lives of college men. It has been frequently pointed out in New York newspapers that there are men in the Bowery lodging houses who know their Aristotle and their Plato in the original, but who evidently know nothing about twentieth century economic conditions. But our problem is more specific than that. The question is raised because college men do not now go into municipal service and the reason is obvious: The colleges or universities are not giving men the point of view, the kind of information, or the training which prepares them for municipal service. Mayor Mitchel at the recent conference on universities and public service said in part:

> During my experience in public office I have noticed that the men who come from college directly into public service are not equipped to do that work effectively, and that they must pass through a more or less protracted period of training before they are fit to carry on successfully the duties even of the minor offices of the city government. . . .
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> It requires practical contact with these problems before the men are ready to carry the work of the departments or intelligently to approach the problems of government. Probably it is for just that reason in the past men who call themselves practical politicians have been more successful in handling governmental problems than the men who have received theoretical training, but have lacked the practical knowledge, because the first class, in rubbing up against the problems of life at close range and in their personal experience acquired in the working of the governmental machinery, are equipped actually to do the day to day work in the departments, although they may not do it as intelligently or with the vision that the mind trained in college would have after he had acquired a practical experience to equip him to do the day to day work.

The exclusive attention to what has been printed about municipal government rather than to the existing facts in the government in the community in which the college is located is a cause for this lack of interest in municipal government. For example, take a college class in any one of the institutions in New York City to the municipal lodging house, to the recreation piers on a summer evening, to the city hall and municipal building, to any one of the municipal hospitals, and you will observe a new light in their eyes and animated discussion for a few succeeding days. Instead of the ordinary college class with the professor taking the star part and the rest of the people acting in pantomime, you have a concerted company in which the leading part is taken successively by various students. President Butler in his introduction to Paulsen's book said that the college or university student must be sharpened to a point. This sharpening should begin at least in the colleges. There is no reason, however, to believe that it could not be begun in the high schools.

The committee on practical training for public service definitely proposes a plan for getting the university man into municipal government. Its present concern, however, is with the student of political science and economics. Its method is applicable to students of accountancy, engineering, medicine, and law. The ordinary procedure is for a student to spend three years at least in the university, in the class room, in seminar, in the library, securing academic wisdom on specific problems, in this case on municipal government. These men are frequently without the daily contact with government which would enable them to translate the words of the page into the experience around them. The only way this translation can be adequately brought about is through experience with the facts and methods of government. The committee recognizes the need for theoretical foundation. It agrees with Mayor Mitchel when he says that "university courses in statistics, political theories or political economy, are, of course, the desirable foundation of future efficiency and administrative ability, but by themselves fall far short of the essential equipment for public service." It proposes, however, that post-graduate students who have had one year's theoretical foundation shall spend the second year in practical contact with government by leaving the university and reporting in a governmental department or a bureau of municipal research or other agencies of administration or investigation. The student would then return to the university for his third year, having had a year's experience in adapting the theory of his under-graduate work and the first year post-graduate work with the real problems of government. He ought to return to the university with numbers of questions and problems. His third year in the university ought to be spent in reflection on his experience of the preceding year in the light of the theory that the university is teaching.

It is needless to say that these students cannot be placed anywhere. Obviously there must be some method of investigating the opportunities of the country where such men could get an adequate experience, doing under adequate supervision things that need to be done by the community. For that purpose the committee has been making an investigation of agencies and governmental departments offering such opportunities. For example, the New York Bureau of municipal research was investigated by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard, Jeremiah W. Jenks of New York university, Henry Rogers Seager and Charles A.

Beard of Columbia. It will submit to the universities shortly the results of these investigations.

Even after a place has been investigated and approved by the committee for its present conditions and future prospects, it is barely possible that the student may be given merely routine clerical work. For that purpose the committee has provided a system of reports by the student of his daily work. It has provided a system of supervision by means of which a member of the committee, the professors of the university from which the student comes, or a professor from a recognized institution near by, may make visits to the institution to be sure that the student is getting educational work.

The experience of men who have had actual contact with government during their academic career warrants the conviction that these methods will produce men who will go into municipal government if the opportunity is given to them. The only method of training men in various phases of municipal government in connection with individual courses is to give one year of actual contact with the real problems of government under adequate educational supervision under such men as City Manager Waite of Dayton, Dr. McCarthy of the Wisconsin Legislative reference library, Dr. William H. Allen, or Frederick A. Cleveland of the New York Bureau of municipal research. Then there will be no question about university graduates going into municipal service. You will not be able to keep them out.

The committee is interesting other agencies or co-operating with them in a campaign for a definite recognition of public service as a career. It is urging a national campaign to remove the local resident requirement for public service. It desires increased compensation for public service and tenure during efficiency. It will shortly initiate studies of the nature and extent of the knowledge and skill required for specific jobs in the public service so that the men in the universities may be advised as to these requisite qualifications, and universities may adapt their courses to these needs. But more important is the presentation to the universities of an adequate method of training men for public service,—which has untold advantages not only for public service but for all higher education.

With the universities leading the way, with an awakened public consciousness, and with co-operation of all agencies of the common welfare, an American Pericles can say:

"In name, from its not being administered for the benefit of the few, but of the many, it (our government) is called a democracy; but with regard to its laws, all enjoy equality, as concerns their private differences; while with regard to public rank, according as each man has reputation for anything, he is preferred for public honors, not so much from consideration of party, as of merit; nor, again, on the ground of poverty, while he is able to do the state any good service, is he prevented by obscurity of his position."

THE SMOKE NUISANCE

BY KARL J. ZELLNER

MANY cities are taking active steps to investigate the cause and the methods to be used for the abatement and in due time the elimination of the smoke nuisance. The federal government is conducting scientific investigation through the bureau of mines; while in the cities ordinances have been passed; commissions have been appointed to investigate and smoke inspectors placed in charge of smoke abatement departments. Campaigns are being conducted, the main object in view being to educate the people to the fact that the smoke nuisance, while being to a great extent an engineering problem. is their problem as well, and one in which the public should be interested from a financial and an economic point of view.

It is possible from an engineering standpoint absolutely to prevent objectionable, dense smoke; yet without an intense, widespread public sentiment, based on an intelligent knowledge of the effects of smoke, efforts in this direction will be of little avail. Public opinion must be formed, and the community operate to this end. Some city ordinances—for example, that of Baltimore—prohibit the emission of dense black or gray smoke for a longer period than six minutes in any one hour. Cincinnati has the same provision. The Pittsburgh ordinance provides against the emission of dense black or dense gray smoke except for eight minutes in any one hour. The Cleveland ordinance allows no period at all for the emission of dense black smoke.

For any smoke inspector to determine the density of smoke emitting from a stack, the standard method recommended by the American society of mechanical engineers is used. This standard is based on the Ringelman smoke scale. These charts are simply squares in each of which is included 100 sub-blocks, the lines dividing the squares into sub-blocks being of varying shades of blackness. In making an observation to determine the density of smoke the four charts are placed between the observer and the smoke, and the color of the smoke as it emits from the stack is matched with the degree of density of the blackness on one of the cards. At a distance from thirty to fifty feet from the observer these colors on the cards blend into varying shades of gray. The smoke ordinance usually specifies the chart to be used as the standard.

The more dense the smoke the greater the waste of fuel in the furnace, for black smoke, while thought by some to be the only feature of the nuisance, is relatively the least harmful part. Smoke is the visible sign of imperfect combustion; the useful signal of something wrong in the combustion process; smokeless and complete combustion are practically synonymous terms, that is, the former cannot exist in the absence of the latter.

For perfect combustion there are three primary requisites, namely, carbon, oxygen, and the maintenance of sufficiently high temperature to make possible complete, chemical combustion of the first two factors. Perfect combustion means a great saving in fuel to the plant owner; imperfect combustion means a loss of a large part of the volatile fuel of high heating value. At the same time imperfect combustion also causes a great loss to the nation, the community and every individual.

The deleterious gases in smoke are principally carbon monoxide (CO) and sulphur dioxide (SO_2), the latter combining with the moisture in the air and in time forming sulphuric acid. Statistics show that there are more people subject to bronchial and nasal troubles in a smoky city than in a clean one, and that pneumonia and typhoid fever are more fatal in a smoky atmosphere. These gases not only pollute the air we breathe, but are destructive to vegetation, cause the deterioration of buildings, ruin draperies and cause a negative loss to cities by keeping out those industries which require a clean atmosphere for the manufacture of their products. It is claimed that the smoke nuisance costs the country $600,000,000 a year; and that the damage done by smoke in the large towns of the United States would build in every city over 100,000, a structure equal to the Congressional library, maintain the army and navy for a year and build the capitol at Washington.

Yet how can this nuisance be remedied? Electrification is conceded to be the solution for the railway smoke. It has a most promising future, though the results will be gradual, but sure to come in time. Central power and heating plants using automatic stokers and carefully designed and operated furnaces, are fast coming to the front as a remedy. The gas producer has been proved one of the most efficient remedies. The power, developed at the mine in the form of electricity or gas, can be carried by means of cables and pipe lines. It is an interesting fact that one ton of coal in a gas producer will produce two and one-half times as much power as that developed by the same amount of coal in a steam plant.

Along with these remedies is suitable legislation supported by public opinion. All smoke ordinances should contain a provision that all plans for new boiler plants, or proposed reconstruction of old ones, must be approved by the chief smoke inspector, before work of erection or improvement is started.

EDITORIAL

ARTHUR CROSBY LUDINGTON[1]

A WIDE circle of civic interests felt the shock when the sudden death of Arthur C. Ludington was reported from London on November 4, 1914.

He had been in England several months when the war broke out. As will be easily understood by his personal friends, he was not able to resist the call to service, and despite his American citizenship, was at length, to his great satisfaction, successful in attaching himself to the Red Cross for work in France with the troops.

On November 4, he was found in his room by his valet, unconscious, with a glancing wound in his head from the revolver which he had just purchased with his Red Cross equipment. In spite of prompt and skillful surgical attention he died three hours later. The inquest developed ample evidence that he had been in excellent health and spirits and full of lively interest in his future plans. The coroner's verdict was that death was accidental.

To readers of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW Ludington's name is familiar, as he was an associate editor during the REVIEW's first year and a contributor of various articles and departmental material that were always valuable by reason of his thoroughness in research. He was also a very useful member of the council of the National Municipal League for several years, where his unusual personal charm won him very warm friends.

His work in New York City was summed up in the following tribute prepared and given to the press by a large group of well-known civic workers:

> The friends of Arthur C. Ludington had intimate opportunity to know the work which he did for this city and state.
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> To the solution of civic problems in New York he contributed a keen intelligence, trained in political science at Yale, at Heidelberg, and as assistant to President Wilson at Princeton. Having an income sufficient for his daily needs, he chose to devote his whole energy to public service. His patience, skill and reliability in gathering and marshalling facts,

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[1] At its meeting in Baltimore, November 18, 1914, the council of the National Municipal League took appropriate action concerning Mr. Ludington's services as an aforetime member. When Mr. Ludington went abroad he resigned his membership in the council, with the understanding that when he returned he would be eligible for reelection. His work in behalf of the league and its ideals amply corroborates the praise given to him in the above memorial.

made him indispensable in many public undertakings. In the struggle for honest elections, direct primaries, Massachusetts ballot, short ballot, legislative reform and many kindred proposals, he played a part which was always immensely useful, yet rarely conspicuous.

It is significant that hardly a piece of work is identified with his name or capable of being singled out as exclusively his handiwork. Yet few important movements were undertaken without receiving from him some real contribution. He worked always in such unselfish and intimate co-operation with others that these contributions, large though they were, cannot be detached from those of other men. He rendered important service to the city club, the Citizens union, the Honest ballot association, the Direct primary association, the Short ballot organization, the legislative committee of the Progressive party, the congestion committee, and to governors, mayors and members of the legislature.

His untimely death by accident in London on November 4 deprives this city of a citizen whose later life would surely have been of still greater value and eminence.

We who have suffered a personal loss in his death feel it our duty to bring home to citizens of New York the debt of gratitude which they, too, owe to his memory. And especially should he become an inspiring example to other young men of education and means. Freed from the necessity of earning a living, he felt an imperative call to freely give public service. For he held, with Robert Louis Stevenson, that "no man can be honest who does not work."

NOTES AND EVENTS

I. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

Charter Revisions.—*Boston Keeps Small Board.* Perhaps the most notable municipal contest in this country on November 3 had to do with the proposed change in the make-up of the Boston city council from a board of nine elected at large to one composed of representatives from the seventeen wards. In earlier issues of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW,[1] the political history of this proposal has been dealt with at length. It is sufficient to know that Boston voted to retain her present system by a majority of 47,181 to 26,231. Although six wards voted to accept the change, every section of the city, except East Boston, as a whole, voted against the proposition.

The *Christian Science Monitor* commenting on the result said:

> That there are distinct neighborhood and ward problems that demand solution as such, is not disputed. And if the present system of representation brought men into office who ignored this fact, or who were oblivious to evidence of locality needs and were unwilling to heed petitions for action, there would be just cause for complaint. But the present system has no such inevitable result on council members. They must particularize as well as see and act generally. They must care for localities as well as for the city as a whole; but, not subject to the political discipline of a locality, if at any time of choice they put the whole before the part, the city before the ward, they find it easier to take large views of policy and duty.

New Massachusetts Cities. On the same day two Massachusetts towns voted to incorporate as cities—Revere and Attleboro, but Westfield rejected the proposed change. Under the new system Attleboro and Revere will be governed by a mayor and council. Each city will be divided into wards from each of which one member will be elected at large. The mayor, city clerk, city collector of taxes and city treasurer will be chosen by the whole city for terms of two years each. Three members of the school committee also will be elected each year. There is little in the action taken by these Massachusetts cities in the direction of simplicity.

Under the Massachusetts constitution, unlike that of most states, a city *must* receive its first charter of incorporation by a special legislative act; but such act must also be approved by a vote of the people.

Commission Government in New York. The optional city government law has had its test. Four rejections and one acceptance constitute the gross result. On the same day as the general election, Lockport rejected plan "C" which has the commission-manager plan, by a vote of 2,427 to 1,962. Cohoes voted 2,331 for and 2,429 against the plan. Mt. Vernon rejected it by a majority vote of about 150. Niagara Falls accepts the same plan by a vote of 2,526 to 1,068. Auburn on the same day rejected plan "B." According, however, to the *Auburn Citizen*, the defeat of the plan does not indicate that the people of that city do not wish a change in their city charter. It is argued that had plan "C" been submitted and a better opportunity for discussion been given, the result in favor of a change would have been favorable. These New York results are anything but discouraging, since the margins of rejection in several cases are very small. It is believed also that the act would be much stronger if it made provision for non-partisan elections.

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[1] Vol. iii, p. 593.

Buffalo won its six-year fight for commission government, the successive steps of which have been recounted from time to time in the REVIEW. This is now the largest city in the United States under the plan, and its charter follows in every important respect the Des Moines model, the governing board consisting of the conventional five. Elections will be non-partisan, but the ballot will not be preferential. Provision is made for the referendum but not for the initiative or recall. The vote on the charter stood 36,362 for and 20,891 against adoption. The total vote for governor was 69,240.

Commission-Manager Plan—New Accessions. In addition to Niagara Falls, two other American cities on November 3 adopted the commission-manager plan, by means of special home rule charters: Ashtabula, Ohio, and Jackson, Michigan. In both cases non-partisan elections with the initiative, referendum and recall were included, and the charters otherwise conform to the generally accepted plan in use in other places. This makes a total of cities under the commission-manager plan of twenty-three, as follows:

Sumter, South Carolina.
Hickory, North Carolina.
Morganton, North Carolina.
Dayton, Ohio.
Springfield, Ohio.
Phoenix, Arizona.
Big Rapids, Michigan.
La Grande, Oregon.
Amarillo, Texas.
Manistee, Michigan.
Abilene, Kansas.
Collinsville, Oklahoma.
Montrose, Colorado.
Taylor, Texas.
Denton, Texas.
Lakeland, Florida.
Morris, Minnesota.
Ashtabula, Ohio.
Jackson, Michigan.
Alhambra, California.
Niagara Falls, New York.
Sandusky, Ohio.

Detroit Amends Charter. Nine amendments were made to the charter of Detroit on November 3, none of which, however, very radically affects the structure of the city government. These were propositions increasing the rate of interest on bonds from 4 per cent to 5 per cent; dividing the city into 21 wards; granting compensation to civil service commissioners; raising the forced paving limit of the city from $300,000 to $600,000; providing for an increase in pension of retired and disabled firemen; creating a recreation commission; giving the council power to fix the salary of city officers; empowering the mayor to appoint and remove appointive officers at his pleasure, and giving the council power to grant special privileges for street encroachments.

Toledo Accepts Charter. The proposed home-rule charter, which has been noted heretofore (vol. iii, No. 4, p. 768), was carried on November 3, by a substantial majority.[1]

California. Important action affecting the future of the cities of California was taken by the voters of that state on November 3, for, according to the *California Outlook*, the following amendments, all of fundamental importance, were carried.

1. Amendment No. 19 relating to the consolidation of a city and county and limited annexation of contiguous territory. This amendment is the result of a compromise between the cities of Oakland, Los Angeles and San Francisco. It provides a method by which a metropolitan city may annex surrounding municipalities, even those outside the county of the annexing city. The consent of a majority of the electors of the annexed district, however, is required. This amendment contains a number of minor provisions.

2. Amendment No. 25 is of particular interest to framers of city charters in that it permits a general grant of powers over municipal affairs instead of necessitating the enumeration of a long list of powers as heretofore. A number of minor matters are also taken up in this amendment.

3. Amendment No. 27 modifies the county home-rule amendment passed in

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[1] From H. S. Gilbertson, secretary, Short Ballot Organization.

1912 so as to permit county officers to discharge certain municipal functions of any municipality in the county incorporated under general laws or framed under the home rule provision of the constitution.

4. Amendment No. 29 is apparently of similar scope as amendment No. 25 except that it applies to counties organized under general law rather than by charter.

Amendments No. 7 relating to home-rule in taxation, No. 16 relating to excess condemnation, and No. 33 relating to public utilities, are reported to have been defeated.

It will also be a matter of regret in many quarters that California is not to have a constitutional convention, this proposition having been defeated by the people at the November election.

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Commission Government in Pennsylvania.—Dubois having voted to become a third class city, brings the number of cities operating under the new commission form of government bill to 29, and the population in the cities operating under it to 908,793.

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Municipal Ownership.—*Los Angeles.* In May the people of Los Angeles voted in favor of a bond issue of $6,500,000 for the construction of a municipal electric lighting plant. Those favoring municipal ownership based their optimism on the success of 11 years of municipal ownership of the water system of Los Angeles. It was claimed by the municipal ownership forces that profits of $8,286,531.14 have accrued to the city during the time that the city has operated the water service. Since Los Angeles has a population of half a million, its experiment with municipal ownership of its lighting and power system will be watched with interest.

Milwaukee Lighting. The railroad commission of Wisconsin made an informal investigation as to the cost of municipal street lighting in Milwaukee, and found that a plant could be built and operated by which the city could own and operate an adequate number of four ampere luminous arcs and tungsten lamps at an average cost of $75.11 per lamp. The items in this cost as given by the commission seem to be uniformly higher than similar items in private plants under substantially similar circumstances and conditions. The significant fact is, however, that, without allowing for any other business or for the diversification of its load in any way whatsoever, the city could build a plant and get up-to-date electric lamps at $75.11 each. It is very clear that under anything like a reasonable development for power and commercial uses, the cost per lamp would be much lower than this, yet $75.11 is a much lower rate than the average city in the United States is getting from private companies.

Lectures on Public Utilities. During March, April and May, a course of lectures was given on public utilities before the Finance Forum of the West Side Y. M. C. A., New York City. Among the lecturers were T. Commerford Marton, of the New York Edison company; Francis T. Homer; Arthur Williams, of the Edison company; Dr. Edward P. Hyde, of the General electric company; T. P. Sylvan, of the New York telephone company; Thomas N. McCarter, president of the Public service corporation of New Jersey; W. H. Gardner; William D. Kerr, director of the Bureau of public service economics; and Charles F. Mathewson. The fact that all of the lectures in the course were published by William P. Bonbright & Company, investment bankers in public utilities securities, will perhaps place the reader on his guard as to their prejudice and value.[1]

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Municipal Ownership of Railways in the District of Columbia. House Report No. 15191, otherwise known as the Crosser bill, provides for the acquisition, ownership and operation by the commissioners of the District of Columbia of all the street railroads located in the District of Columbia. Many statements, favorable and unfavorable to municipal ownership, have been called forth during the hearings on this bill. To facilitate the work of those interested in the subject-matter of the bill—who, otherwise, would have to plod through the pages of testimony pertaining thereto—the bureau of public service economics, in July, 1914, issued an abstract of hearings before the committee on the District of Columbia. This abstract sets forth in a clear, concise manner the salient features of the bill. It is followed by an abstract of the statements of various important men regarding the bill .The bureau, in addition, has prepared a brief and argument based on the abstract of the hearings.

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[1] Prepared by Clyde Lyndon King.

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Municipal Ownership and Operation of Water Works. The nineteenth century opened with sixteen water works in the United States which were municipally owned. It closed, as M. N. Baker, editor of *Engineering News*, in an address before the Conference of Mayors pointed out, with nearly 3,500 works, more than half of which were under public ownership and 200 of which had changed from private to municipal ownership. In his address Mr. Baker expressed the opinion that it would be salutary if there were some measure of state control over the way in which a city raises its money to defer the cost of its utility service. He also believes that there should be state control of water works accounts and reports. In addition he asserted that the case for general state control of the utility of water supply rests upon the fact that public health is a matter of state and national concern, and cannot safely be left to local control.

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Telephones.—The Kansas utilities commission recently ruled that a telephone company must furnish satisfactory service and must charge its stockholders the same rate for telephone service that it charges its other customers. The ruling was brought out by the application of the Fairview telephone company for permission to increase its rates. The 300 stockholders of this company were getting service at 50 cents a month, while the 80 consumers, who were not stockholders, were paying one dollar a month for the same service. The commission held this to be discrimination and ordered all telephone companies to discontinue this practice; which was found to be very common throughout the state.

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London's Electricity Supply.—According to the *London Reform Notes*, the supplying of electric light and power in London is in a very chaotic state, as may be gleaned from the following statement: "At this moment there are 65 authorities supplying electricity upon 49 different systems from 70 generating stations containing 585 engines." Two well-known electrical experts were engaged to work upon the problem. In their report they recommend the establishment of "a new undertaking with such powers as will enable it to concentrate production, standardize and unify distribution, and bring about the amalgamation of the different undertakings." As to the methods by which the new agency might be established, the experts came to the conclusion that the best method is "partial or complete municipal ownership with private operation, under street municipal control, the bulk of profits going to the public, whether as ratepayers or consumers."

The special committee on London electricity supply rejects the idea of a scheme providing for complete municipal ownership and operation and recommends a combination of municipal control and ownership with operation by a company. The metropolitan area of electricity supply embraces six county councils, including the London council. Without this area, there exists 70 electricity supply undertakings of which 39 belong to local authorities, and 31 to private companies. The question now is, will parliament make the London county council the supply over this vast area?

There is a movement on foot for the formation of a gigantic electric light and power company for London which will be a large holding and operating company, to take over the shares of the existing companies and offer the old shareholders shares in the new enterprise in exchange for their present holdings. All of the companies are not definitely in favor of the proposed scheme; but a special committee has been appointed to examine thoroughly the problem. London's electrical requirements will be carefully studied and indicated in the proposed plans.

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Accounting Notes.—*New York's Proposed Payroll Revision.* City Chamberlain Bruere, co-operating with the department of finance of the New York City government and with the bureau of municipal research, is engaged in working out municipal payrolls. In the first place all of the payroll forms of the many city departments will be standardized to 17″ x 14″ in size. Similar to the advertisements now appearing relative to certain food products, New York's new payrolls may be said to be prepared "without being touched by human hands." The size adopted will admit of payroll preparation by any of the standard mechanical devices used in this line of work. Addressograph plates will contain for each employee—(1) name; (2) amount of monthly or half-monthly salary, stated in figures; and (3) the same amount stated in words.

It is planned to establish a division in the department of finance where the payrolls and employees' checks of all departments in the city will be prepared, instead of having each department prepare its own roll as at present. That the standardization and centralization of payroll methods will save a large amount of money is obvious. Moreover, the new method will lend itself much more readily to facility of operation.

Not the least important part of the plan contemplates the use of signature cards for per diem employees so that when paying men in the field, instead of being compelled to wait for each man to sign his name on the roll, cards will be distributed immediately upon the arrival of the paymaster's automobile and quickly signed by the gang or group to be paid. As fast as signed the men will fall in line and exchange their cards for the money due them. The same cards can be used for six months without rewriting. Each per diem employee will have a number which will appear on the badge to be worn on his coat. This same number will also appear on the card and on the payroll, thus providing an additional insurance that the right man is being paid.

Pittsburgh's Salary Standardization. The mayor's bureau of costs and the civil service efficiency division of the Pittsburgh city government, with the assistance of the New York bureau of municipal research, have been making an intensive study for several months, relative to standardizing the rates of compensation of that city's employees. Instead of permitting this work to lapse as have some of the cities which began standardization of salaries, the city council, under the leadership of Robert Garland, chairman of the finance committee, have retained A. W. Procter of the New York bureau to sit with them during the period of making the 1915 budget, so that they may put into immediate effect the recommendations with respect to salary changes.

Boston Considers New Budget Methods. There has been considerable agitation recently among those interested in municipal government in Boston, relative to the adoption by that city of scientific methods of budget making. Boston is one of the very few large cities which still continues to make its annual budget according to the methods which prevailed a decade ago. Inasmuch as the proposed plan has become entangled with a proposal to change the office of the city auditor to a comptroller's office or department of finance, and such change is opposed from several quarters there is considerable doubt whether new budget methods will be adopted at this time.[1]

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[1] From Herbert R. Sands, C. P. A., with New York bureau of municipal research.

The Meaning of the English Budget.—There are some interesting changes in the budget. Poor law grants are to be passed on recommendations of departmental committees. Educational grants are increased, including grants for feeding children, medical inspection and treatment, physical training, open air schools, tuberculosis treatment, schools for mothers, and special training for teachers and scholars. The police grant is to be increased from 38 per cent to 50 per cent. The road board is to classify roads in three divisions, the government to pay half the expenditure on main roads, one fourth on county roads, and nothing in respect of district roads. Further government control over local administration is to be strengthened and pressure is to be put upon local authorities to carry out schemes of social and public improvement. The municipal income tax is not adopted, because experts declare it impracticable.[1]

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Minneapolis Bureau of Municipal Research.—The Minneapolis civic and commerce association established a bureau of municipal research to make currently available to the city departments the best experience in municipal administration. The work is done under the municipal research committee of the association. Frank S. Staley, formerly of the New York training school for public service, is the director of the bureau. The city council has authorized the director to survey the city departments and to recommend such changes as are necessary to get results with the greatest economy of effort and money. The bureau opened in January, 1914. The newly organized civil service department was the first to be studied and the changes recommended were made. A survey of the health department has been made, including studies of office administration, accounting, food and sanitary inspection service, control of contagious disease, handling of vital statistics, etc. As a result the office has been reorganized and new systems are being installed. New activities suggested by the bureau will be undertaken when the health appropriation is made adequate.

At the request of the city council a special study was made of the fees taken in by the city clerk's office other than those turned over to the city treasury. The findings of this study resulted in an ordinance requiring city employees to return to the city treasury all fees collected. In co-operation with the bureau, the council committee, which has charge of the garbage and ash collection and disposal, is reorganizing the system of collection and disposal so that better service will be given the city at less cost. At present a survey of the city hospital is under way. Surveys of the comptroller's office, the waterworks department, the department of building inspection and the public library have been asked for the city officials in charge.

The Minneapolis bureau makes its suggestions directly to the heads of departments or to committees or boards in charge. When assistance is desired in installing the new systems or undertakings recommended, the bureau furnishes it. The results of the work of the bureau of municipal research appear in the increased effectiveness of the departments. The attitude of the city officials was shown in a letter which the commissioner of health wrote to the chairman of the municipal research committee stating that all the recommendations of the bureau had either been or were to be carried out, and requesting that the bureau keep in touch with his work.

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Public Safety Notes.—*Police Training School.* The school for recruits of the New York police department has been reorganized by Commissioner Woods as the training school of the department. To recruits it now offers carefully planned courses in the laws and ordinances of the department and practical police instruction in the streets and in the courts, gymnastic training, instruction in swimming, wrestling and boxing and a course of lectures in first aid work. Men who have been in the department six years are returned to the school for an additional course of instruction. All men detailed to the traffic squad are given a special course of instruction before being assigned to this work. All lieutenants of the department are given instruction in the duties of their position in a special class in the school, taught by the inspector of the department. Furthermore, there has been distributed to each member of the uniformed force a 200-page volume entitled "Police Practice and Procedure" which gives in clear form an excellent exposition of the principles of police administration. This book has been prepared by Inspector Cahalane, the director of the training school.

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[1] From P. M. Jameson, University of Texas.

St. Louis Promotion Plan. St. Louis has adopted a police promotion system which is distinctly superior to the plans in use in other cities which do not have civil service promotion examinations. Whenever a vacancy occurs all men in the next lower rank who are eligible for promotion are directed to submit to the head of the force through official channels an application for promotion which shall contain a brief account of their service in the department, their principal assignments and details, their meritorious acts and performance of exceptional police duty. The commissioner addresses letters of inquiry to the citizens named in these applications. These applications together with the replies received by the commissioner to the inquiries sent out by him are carefully considered on a competitive basis, and the best man is selected for promotion.

Police Signal Lamps. Police Commissioner Woods of New York has established in the busiest precinct of that city a system of signal lamps, each of which is connected with the station house of the precinct on an independent electric circuit. One of these lamps is located on the beat of each patrolman and the lieutenant at the desk in the station house can, by closing the circuit and lighting the lamp, call the patrolman on post on any beat to the telephone for orders. The response of the patrolmen to these signal lamps is very prompt and the efficiency of the patrol service is much increased thereby.

Extra Tours in Place of Fines. Fire Commissioner Adamson of New York, after making a careful study of the system of fines in vogue in that department, has come to the conclusion that the infliction of a fine upon a member of the uniformed force does not in most cases have a salutary disciplinary effect. The fireman who is fined does not suffer personally as much as do the members of the fireman's family, whose income is decreased. Accordingly Commissioner Adamson has discontinued the practice and in lieu thereof deprives such firemen of their days off by requiring extra tours of duty. As a result the families of the firemen are no longer punished for the delinquencies of the bread-winner and the department received additional service in point of quantity from those firemen whose service is deficient in quality.

Disciplinary Power of Superior Police Officers. In most American cities the police force is a semi-military organization, the members of which are subject to charges if they violate any rule or regulation of the department. The preferring of charges is cumbersome and is employed in the case of every violation of the rules and regulations, whether serious or trivial. Much valuable time and effort are lost, and to obviate this Commissioner Woods has issued an order authorizing inspectors of police to take cognizance of specified minor violations of the rules by police officers under their command. Such disciplinary powers have been possessed by superior police officers in Europe for many years.

Service Journals. Although most of the larger American cities have a school of instruction in which police recruits are instructed in the performance of their duties, practically no American city has made any provision for the systematic instruction of its regular police officers in police work and law enforcement. Most cities which give their policemen physical training confine this work to military drills held to train the men for an annual police parade. The establishment of a weekly service journal for policemen in St. Louis and the establishment of a bi-weekly service journal for policemen in Cleveland mark the commencement of vocational training for police officers in America. These service journals contain instructive papers on law enforcement; correct answers to practical police problems submitted in civil service examinations for promotion; news items of interest to the members of the uniformed force and a department in which answers are published to queries on police subjects submitted by members of the force. The educational value of these service journals is very great.[1]

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City Planning in New York.—Two things are noticeable with relation to the powers and composition of the planning commission just appointed for the city of New York: It is purely advisory; and it is a large unpaid body of citizens giving but a fraction of their time to this public work. In writing on the subject, Frank B. Williams, a member of the commission, says:

"Personally I believe that city planning commissions should have advisory powers, and no others; and such appears to be the growing practice. City planning touches and concerns nearly every phase of city administration. To narrow the field of such a commission would prevent it from doing comprehensive planning, and defeat the chief object of its appointment; to give it power other than advisory, would divide authority and responsibility between the commission and the city administration, which is contrary to sound principles of municipal government. That the advisory commission, to have power, must win support by educating the citizens is no misfortune to the cause of city planning or good government generally. Only progress by this method is permanent.

"The New York commission is given no power to compel reference to it of city planning matters, or to delay final action by other departments until it has had opportunity to investigate and report. Some measure at least of these powers I believe every city planning commission should have. The composition of the New York commission would seem to be a guarantee that, practically, it will not lack these powers. The city is not likely to force to a premature decision matters in which these men suggest that further investigation is necessary.

"The New York commission is a large unpaid body composed of citizens who are not city planners, but are busy with matters closely related to some part of the city plan. The intention is to divide the commission into numerous sub-committees, so as to make it possible for men with little time for work to cover the whole field.

"There are many methods of forming a city planning commission. It is my belief that the choice should lie between a large unpaid citizens' commission, and a small, highly paid professional commission. At the stage in which city planning finds itself at present, there is much to be said for the form of commission New York has chosen."

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Housing and City Planning.—*Rural Housing.* In the House of Commons recently, it was proposed to provide £3,000,000 for the board of agriculture to deal with the rural housing problem. It seems that rents are to be "on an economic basis," but the loan is to be extended, and there will be no sinking fund charge with respect to land.

Compulsory Town Planning. It is expected that Parliament will be asked to decide that town planning shall be compulsory, and not merely limited to those localities in which there happens to be an enlightened and progressive local council. There is a desire on the part of municipal officers to extend the powers of the town planning act to all of the cities.

Planning Greater London. A proposed circular road for the city of London was considered by town planning experts at a recent meeting of the Town Planning Institute. Such a road, of course, would be a relief to the traffic situation in London.

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[1] Prepared by D. Leonhard Felix Fuld.

Irish Exhibition. The civic exhibition, Ireland, 1914, recently took place under the auspices of the Civic Institute, Limited, at Dublin. The primary object of the promoters was "to illustrate simply, clearly, and vividly" recent advances and achievements in Ireland, and to point the way to the solution of certain problems of immediate interest.[1]

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German Municipal Activities in the War Period.—It is very extraordinary in view of the general impression held in this country about the conditions in the belligerent nations, to see how steadily and with what little interruption the usual municipal activities are being carried on in German cities. However, the municipal journals, which by the way in Germany in contrast to those in England,[2] for instance, are continuing during the war without diminution in volume, give some interesting facts with regard to the extraordinary duties imposed upon the cities by the war.

The first of these extraordinary activities seems to be the voting of appropriations for providing necessities of life at normal prices. Frankfurt, for instance, has made an appropriation of 2,000,000 marks for such activities. In Berlin the administrative board of magistrat is meeting in daily session and has proposed an appropriation of 6,000,000 marks for providing flour, bread, and other food stuffs. The municipalities have quite generally determined the maximum prices to be charged for such food stuffs and provide for the punishment of usurious charges.

According to statistics collected by one of the German municipal journals, there is no fear of a food famine.

Provision has also been made for readjusting the work of public instruction so far as it has been effected by the calling of the teachers to the colors.

Many German cities have voted thousands of dollars for the support of women and children left without resources as a result of the head of the family being called to the colors.

Provision has been made for the training of officers on the pension list for service in the municipalities in place of such officials as are called to the front.

The *Stadte Zeitung* of Berlin, one of the leading municipal journals, writes editorially in praise of the bureaucracy and its accomplishments in this time of war, which it has not hesitated to condemn at times and in the conduct of its ordinary business. It is estimated that in Berlin as a result of the war about 200,000,000 marks worth of building has come to a standstill, but the authorities in Berlin and elsewhere have decided to carry on all undertakings already decided upon, in order to remedy the problem of unemployment. In Düsseldorf several hundred of the municipal officials and employees not called to the colors have voluntarily given up a portion of their income to be devoted to the support of families needing assistance because of the loss of their producers, and for the Red Cross.

In certain cities of Germany a municipal voluntary militia has been organized for purposes of police protection to take the place of the considerable number of police which have been called to the colors. In one community all of the higher municipal authorities were called to the colors, leaving the municipality without a regular official.

One result of the war has been the postponement of all the proposed meetings of municipalities in the various portions of the German Empire.

Cologne recently voted 100,000 marks for the relief of the population in East Prussia in want because of the war.

A number of German municipalities have issued notices to their citizens to exercise the greatest economy in the use of the light and water furnished by the city, with a view primarily to preserving the supply, but also in part because of the reduction in the number of men available for continuing these public utilities.

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[1] From R. M. Jameson, University of Texas.

[2] This evidently does not refer to the London *Municipal Journal*, which arrives regularly.—EDITOR.

The most serious problem facing the municipalities in Germany as a result of the war seems to be that of unemployment. All classes of the population have been affected by the closing down of a great many industries, and the difficulty of providing work for men seems to be great.[1]

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Municipal Markets.—*Chicago.* On September 24 the first municipal markets to be established in Chicago were opened for business. These markets are in the centers of congested districts where the people need cheaper food. Miss Kelley, who is in charge, aided by agents of the markets commission, had circulars printed in English, Hebrew, German and other languages and distributed for the instruction of consumers. In addition, agents were dispatched to truck farming districts within a radius of 25 miles of Chicago to notify farmers that places would be reserved for them. The markets promise to be a great success.

Liverpool. An interesting fact is reported by Oscar L. Hewitt, of the Chicago *Herald,* who finds that Liverpool gets a 5 per cent commission upon the value of products brought into the municipal market by producers and sold directly to consumers. The profit from the market is $60,000 a year. The profit to producers and consumers is still greater.[2]

⁂

Municipal Promotion as Function of Government.—In the commission government charter of the small city of Amarillo, Texas, provision is made for a board of civic development whose functions are very similar to those of an ordinary chamber of commerce or board of trade. The activities of this board are directed to advertising the city and promoting its commercial interests. There are 14 members, and the board is subject to little control by the city commission. A tax of two mills on the dollar is levied to furnish revenue for the undertaking. In view of the fact that the courts of many states have held that taxes may not be imposed for the purpose of assisting commercial enterprises and thus promoting the commercial interests of a city, the question presents itself whether, if the matter were contested, the courts would sustain the expenditure of public revenues for a purpose such as this, however, "public" it may seem to be in the broader acceptation of that term.

⁂

Municipal Waste Disposal.—The Chicago waste commission recently recommended to the city council a comprehensive plan for the collection and disposal of all the city's wastes, which would involve an ultimate expenditure of $3,513,000. The council then authorized an appropriation for the purpose of making further detailed studies and preparing for putting the general plan into execution. The studies will probably require a year for completion. The city has purchased the contractor's plant for $175,000, which was about $200,000 less than the company originally demanded, and has spent about $260,000 in its reconstruction. The city is also erecting a large incinerating plant to serve the extreme southern part of the city.

⁂

Higher Offices Competition in New York.—The New York civil service commission has refused the application of the Mitchel administration to exempt the secretaries of six commissioners recently authorized to study certain phases of the municipal problem. In refusing this request the commission established a policy that the merit system should be extended to the higher positions in the operating departments of the city government, properly embracing all positions without actual policy determining functions. The commission, however, did exempt certain of the persons desired by the administration on the ground of their special fitness.

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[1] From Herman G. James.

[2] From Clyde Lyndon King.

Unemployment and Distress in Great Britain.—The effects of the war upon employment and distress among the poor became apparent in August. Local representative committees are being set up under government initiative. These committees will make a continual survey of trade and industrial conditions. They will seek to co-ordinate relief and charitable agencies and will work in co-operation with municipal and poor law authorities.[1]

⁂

Municipal Printing.—The Glasgow corporation has passed a resolution to appoint a special committee to consider and report as to the desirability of instituting a printing and stationery establishment where the municipal printing could be done so far as practicable. We know of no local authority in the United Kingdom which does its own printing.

Municipal Scrubber.—The Louisville health department has created the job of municipal scrubber and cleaner, whose duty is to aid in the keeping of tenement houses clean. She is also available for the occupants of one and two family houses; at the expense of the latter, however.

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Municipal Wages.—The same demand which precipitated the municipal strike at Leeds, viz., the claim to 2*s*. a week advance in wages for all municipal employees, has been made at Manchester.

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City Commissions at Work for Chicago.—The subjects of railway terminals, municipal markets, the disposal of waste, and unemployment are receiving the attention of four separate commissions.

II. POLITICS[2]

Crime in Chicago.—The special committee of the city council investigating crime in Chicago was created by an order introduced in that body by Alderman Charles E. Merriam on May 18, 1914. The order providing for a comprehensive study of this important problem was as follows:

> Ordered, That the mayor be and he is hereby authorized and directed to appoint a committee of five aldermen for the purpose of investigating and reporting to this council upon the frequency of murder, assault, burglary, robbery, theft and like crimes in Chicago; upon the official disposition of such cases; upon the causes for the prevalence of such crimes; and upon the best practical methods of preventing these crimes.

Alderman Merriam, chairman, Kerner, Long, Walkowiak and Nash were appointed members of the committee and an appropriation of $10,000 was voted by the council to carry on the work. Subsequently, after a number of preliminary reports had been submitted by the committee, a further appropriation of $15,000 was voted to complete the inquiry.

The text of the order creating the investigating body indicates that the committee was not limited only to investigation of the activities of the police department, as has been the case with many inquiries of this kind, but rather aims to include the work of other administrative agencies which deal with crime in the community, such as the courts, the prosecuting machinery and local penal and correctional institutions and the more fundamental, psychological and sociological aspects of the problem.

The investigation under the direct supervision of Alderman Merriam has been carried along three lines. Morgan L. Davies, attorney for the committee, has been in charge of the investigation of the police department and the legal phases of the inquiry; Edith Abbott has supervised the collection of statistics of crime; and Prof. R. H. Gault of the Northwestern University has been engaged as psychologist and criminologist. Fletcher Dobyns has directed the investigation of the relations of pickpockets and other criminals with the police and has been associated as advisory counsel with Mr. Davies in other phases of the investigation.

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[1] From R. M. Jameson, University of Texas.

[2] Prepared by the Editor except where otherwise indicated.

Several reports have already been submitted. Miss Abbott has reported on the extent and character of crime, on the number of complaints, arrests and convictions; on the workings of the adult probation system; on conditions in the county jail; and on the social status of those arrested. Her report indicates that although there were a total of 109,764 arrests made in 1913 in Chicago but 10 per cent were on felony charges, while the remainder were held on minor misdemeanor charges. Of the 11,000 persons arrested for felonies but 3 per cent were sent to the penitentiary and a large number are imprisoned needlessly for very long periods of time, although not convicted. Courts, jails and jail machinery, costing over eight million dollars a year to maintain, is used almost entirely for those who are later declared innocent and discharged, or for those whose offense is found to be so trivial when found guilty as to deserve only a fine. Another important fact brought out in her report was that more than 80 per cent of those committed to the house of correction, over 12,000 in number, were sent there because they were unable to pay the fine imposed upon them by the court, and that a system of paying fines by installments, such as has been tried in Kansas City, Indianapolis and other places, would be more just to the minor offenders and a great saving to the state. In a subsequent report Miss Abbott pointed out that in Chicago, at least, the statement frequently made that immigrants are more prone to commit crimes than are native Americans is not true. The figures show, on the contrary, that the number of immigrants arrested for criminal offenses is very much less proportionately than for those born in America.

A number of public hearings have been held at which many of the judges of the municipal court, the commanding officers of the police department, and a number of investigators working under the direction of the attorneys have been examined in regard to conditions prevailing in Chicago, and much evidence indicating a very close relationship between certain police officers and criminals operating in the city has been brought out. A number of instances were reported in which police officers cooperated with pickpockets in the plying of their criminal trade. Two detectives are now on trial before the civil service commission on charges based on testimony of this character given before the committee.

It is expected that the work of the committee will probably be completed by January 1, 1915, and that a number of constructive proposals will be made which, it is hoped, will aid in the prevention and the better suppression of crime in Chicago.

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Orange, N. J.—H. S. Gilbertson, the executive secretary of the National Short Ballot Organization, ran for the office of mayor on the Progressive ticket. He was defeated, however, in the Republican landslide that swept over New Jersey generally.

⁂

Chicago.—Of the 12 sitting judges of the municipal court who were renominated all except two were re-elected. The two who failed of re-election were candidates for other offices at the same primary. Of the two who were defeated one was a very excellent judge and the other was indifferent. In the opinion of those who followed the situation, "It must be accepted that a considerable number of voters were making a real effort to vote intelligently on this office, as is indicated by the fact that the sitting judges of both of the leading parties who had been endorsed by the bar primary were re-elected except for the instances noted."

The secretary of the American Judicature Society in commenting on the situation says: "It seems incredibly stupid that anybody should doubt that appointment by the governor, either for life tenure or for definite terms, would not be better than the elective method as it works out here. There are some arguments of course against appointment by the governor.

We are endeavoring to find a plan which possesses advantages of both of the traditional methods of selection and as few as possible of the defects."

⁂

Buffalo.—Three fourths of the state legislators elected from Erie County are pledged to the Municipal League of Buffalo to work for the submission of an amendment to the recently adopted charter of the city providing for the initiative and the recall.

⁂

Harrisburg is now operating under a commission form of government, being one of the third class cities affected by the recently (1913) enacted Clark law. The local situation under the former law was not so bad as in many another city. On the other hand, her experience under commission government has not been an unqualified success. It is reported that the water department is being managed satisfactorily, public sentiment having forced the appointment of a skilled bacteriologist, in whom there is confidence. Moreover, a bit of real economy was effected by combining the various chemical needs of the city under the supervision of this one bacteriologist. The streets are in the hands of a man who was formerly a street supervisor. They are neither in better nor worse condition. The finances of the city are directed by the same official who previously controlled them, for the Clark bill did not provide for a reorganization of the administration of finances. On the other hand, public order and safety have received a serious set-back. Under the Clark act it has been possible for the three Republican members of the council to assume control of the police department. This control has not been exercised in the interest of better government. The mayor in this city is a committing magistrate, and holds police court every day. The policemen report to him. He has practically no authority over them, and has had to suffer the humiliation recently of having a patrolman who had been dismissed for drunkenness permitted to abuse him publicly in the councilmanic chamber, under the support of the three dominating Republican councilmen.

The park commission has ceased to be a factor of any interest. The members including J. Horace McFarland, a vice-president of the National Municipal League and president of the American Civic Association, were publicly accused of wrongdoing by the weak-kneed superintendent of parks. Accordingly, they resigned their positions on the advisory committee. Later on, however, they were influential in having Warren H. Manning of Boston retained as adviser. To support their self-respect and their notable record, the five members of the old park commission have refused to serve on the city planning commission, which is now appointed and includes five excellent men who know nothing whatever about city planning and only one of whom has been in any sense active in public work.

The personnel of the governing commission is not strong. The dominating factor on the Republican side is the highway commissioner, who is the grade of a good, ordinary, political contractor-foreman. Another councilman was foreman of a machine shop and had been one of the city assessors. He is honest, but without imagination and with much prejudice. The third Republican is a very weak man, who has been on all sides of every question all his life, and whose commercial aspirations have been expressed through a cigar store. Mayor Royal is a reasonably capable man, who held over, but he is absolutely powerless, because he is a Democrat. His Democratic associate, the cashier of the Harrisburg national bank and an able financier, is not interfered with in the management of his department.

⁂

Detroit.—Mayor Marx was re-elected over Frederick F. Ingram, a business man of high character and many attainments. In the words of a correspondent: "Some of the reasons for Mayor Marx's victory at the recent election are: Mr. Ingram who in every way would make a good executive, is not a strong man politically, not being a ready speaker or a mixer. Mayor Marx, on the other hand, while not a strong speaker, is a mixer and had the backing of a strong political machine."

Mr. Ingram was emphatically in favor of carrying the mandate of the people with regard to the municipal ownership of street railways into immediate operation. In one of his statements he said: "The people decided to have municipal ownership. They are given a so-called day-to-day agreement that to say the least makes the road to municipal ownership more difficult."

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Seattle.—Mayor Hiram W. Gill[1] is giving Seattle a sane and acceptable administration, and is keeping the promises he made in his campaign for re-election and vindication. The city, in the opinion of one close observer, is "at least reasonably clean and orderly, perhaps as well regulated as a coast city could be expected to be. There is no open gambling nor has there been any attempt to revive the restricted district. This is not to say that conditions could not be improved here. Far from that. But the mayor is giving every evidence of a desire to serve the city conscientiously and to the best of his ability." The *Post-Intelligencer*, which had a leading part in the recall of Mayor Gill and in two campaigns opposed his re-election on account of his former record, finds much in his present administration to commend, and is pleased to give him a word of praise.

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California.—Hon. W. P. Lawlor who earned a wide reputation as the presiding judge during the graft trials in San Francisco some years ago, has just been elected associate justice of the supreme court of California.

⁂

California Home Rule.—Notwithstanding the strong home rule sentiment which prevails in California, fifteen of its cities have voted to turn over the regulation of their public utilities to the California public utilities commission. According to the secretary of state the actual valuation of the property thus to be regulated is estimated at $9,000,000. The cities so voting are Santa Monica, Palo Alto, Willets, Orange, Covina, Monterey, Pomona, Antioch, Salinas, Eagle Rock, Belvidere, Ontario, Daly City, San Jose and Huntington Beach.

⁂

English Municipal Elections.—The feature of this year's municipal elections in England was "an unprecedented absence of contests." There was a truce between the political parties, and, according to the London *Municipal Journal*, most of the fights that did take place were forced by the Labor people. A few contests, of course, were put up by candidates who belonged to no party and championed special causes, but the electors were not enthusiastic, as they seemed to have had other things to think about. The result of the elections is that the personnel of the councils remains pretty much as it was. In the words of the *Municipal Journal:* "Retiring councillors have been lucky in getting returned without the bother and expense of contests, and the public have been spared expense too, and a great deal of autumnal oratory. The cost to the ratepayers of a municipal election is considerable. The expense of printing and placarding the walls with the names of candidates and instructions to voters, the hire and equipment of polling booths, the fees of presiding officers and poll clerks, the cost for motor-cars, police, and counting clerks, and other incidental expenses, are borne by the rates, and in the aggregate comes to a substantial sum—as much as £1,400 in a Manchester November election with an average number of contests. All this money has been saved, and can be spent upon the provisions of employment for men who are hit by the war. Next year, or the year after, the contests for the municipal councils will be resumed, but the big fight must be seen through first."

⁂

Election of English Mayors.—Recently, the "mayor choosings" occurred in England. Contrary to general opinion, the mayors were not very frequently chosen from among the aldermen. Re-elections occurred in less than one fourth of the cases. Of 376 mayors, 80 aldermen were selected; 82 mayors were re-elected, 24 having served as aldermen; 15 army officers were chosen, one admiral, and 4 knights. The longest term, 25 years, occurred at Lydd, while a term of 15 years is recorded at Montgomery.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, pp. 398, 608.

⁂

Autotaxation as a Political Weapon in German Cities.—An interesting consequence of the thoroughgoing recognition in German public law of the proprietary functions of the government, both state and local, and the legal rights and obligations that flow therefrom as distinguished from the governmental functions was recently drawn in a decision by the district administrative court of Potsdam. The magistrat of the city of New Cologne had entered itself on the municipal voters' list on the basis of the taxes paid by the city on its proprietary undertakings. This entry being contested in the proper administrative proceeding, the court held that the magistrat as the legal representative of the city was entitled to be inscribed on the voters' list of that city by reason of the taxes, both state and local, paid by that city on its proprietary undertakings. In other words, the city not only taxes itself, but becomes entitled to a vote in the proper class for members of the city council by reason of such taxpaying. Even more interesting than the legal point involved is the political use made of this power. The taxes paid by the city exceed those paid by any other taxpayer. In the case in question they were more than the totals paid by the three next highest taxpayers. Hence the magistrat would come in the first class of voters and might in many cities constitute that first class alone. In that case the magistrat would be entitled to elect one third of the members of the city council, which would of course give them a very important political position. That this power would be used for political purposes was clearly shown in the statement of the magistrat in question that it desired to exercise this power in order to oppose the likelihood of a social democratic majority on the city council.[1]

The Voting List of Berlin made up according to the three class system in 1913, is as follows: First class, 771 voters; second class, 32,291 voters; third class, 359,803 voters. This means in substance that 48 members, or one third of the council of the German metropolis, are elected by one fifth of 1 per cent of the total number of voters, *i.e.*, of those who make up the first class of large taxpayers. The lowest individual tax payment in this group was $1,795. A second third of the council is chosen by 8.2 per cent of the total number of voters, *i.e.*, of those making up the second class, whose individual tax payments ranged from the figure noted above down to $48.35. The third class, made up of all other voters, contains 91.6 per cent of the electorate but chooses only one third of the members of the council. Of the 48 seats in the council chosen by third class voters, 45 are now occupied by socialists. Berlin is divided into 16 councilmanic districts for first and second class, and into 48 districts for third class voters. As a result voters of the first and second classes are called together to elect councilmen every two years, while voters of the third class are called together for this purpose once only every six years. The figures stated above are of especial interest in comparison with those given by Professor Munro for the year 1905 (p. 131, Government of European Cities). Between that year and 1913, the total number of voters in Berlin increased from 374,751 to 392,865. The first class voters decreased, however, from 1,829 in 1905 to 771 in 1913, or from forty-eight-hundredths of 1 per cent to nineteen-hundredths of 1 per cent. Voters of class two remained almost the same in absolute number, but their percentage declined from 8.6 per cent in 1905 to 8.2 per cent in 1913. In spite of the reform of the three class election law in 1900, therefore, the influence of the plutocracy is steadily increasing in the municipal affairs of the German metropolis.[2]

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[1] From Dr. Herman G. James.

[2] From Prof. Robert C. Brooks, Swarthmore College.

III. JUDICIAL DECISIONS

Right to Photograph.—An interesting question was that recently presented to the attorney general of Wisconsin as to whether officials who have the right to enter premises for purposes of inspection have also the right to make photographs showing the conditions found by them in such premises. In an opinion to the state health officer, C. A. Harper, the attorney general held that an inspector has such authority for the purpose of being better able to show the conditions existing to the administrative officials. This seems a logical deduction from the right to inspect and a necessary part of that right. The possibility that such reports as are made by deputy health officers may be rendered more graphic by photographs of the premises concerned and made available as public records for public use or public inspection should have a salutary effect.

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Street Lighting—Obligation of Municipality.—The supreme court of Georgia in *Williams vs. Mayor and Council of Washington*[1] held that in the absence of a statutory requirement, a municipal corporation is under no obligation to light its streets; that it has the right to exercise its own discretion as to whether it will light them or not, and that from the exercise of such discretion, no liability will arise. The court in effect holds, however, that if a municipality attempts to light its streets and subsequently neglects them or does not maintain adequate lights, and an injury results, that that fact, along with other circumstances, may be considered in determining whether there is negligence in failing to keep the street in a reasonably safe condition for pedestrians.

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Municipal Lighting Plant—Care Required.—The Kansas supreme court held in *Hurze vs. Iola*[2] that a city which attempts to operate an electric light plant and furnish electricity to its citizens acts in its proprietary capacity, and that as such proprietor it is obliged to exercise the highest degree of care to avoid injury to its patrons. On this principle, the court held that a commissioner of the city having received notice between two and three o'clock of a defect in the lighting system within one hundred feet of plaintiff's shop and at a place receiving current under the control of the same transformer, the city was to be deemed negligent in not preventing an injury to plaintiff in his shop some three hours later, caused by the defect in the transformer.

⁂

Water Supply Outside City Limits.—Many cities having municipal water systems supply territory lying outside the city boundaries. The question as to the rate and terms on which such supply should be furnished was before the Alabama supreme court in a case entitled *City of Montgomery vs. Green.*[3] In that case the court held that all consumers to whom the city furnishes water, whether living within or without the city limits, are entitled to receive it at the same rate, in the absence of some physical difference justifying separate classifications.

The same court held in *Ellis vs. Birmingham Water Works Company*[4] that a property owner has no right of action against a water company for the loss of his property resulting from the failure of the company to provide sufficient water or water pressure for fire purposes, as required by its contract with the city. The contract to provide water for fire purposes having been made with the city, an individual property owner is excluded by a want of privity from maintaining an action against the company.

⁂

Liability for City Deposits.—When a bank in which municipal funds are deposited fails, the question usually has to be threshed out as to the respective liability of the officer making the deposit and the municipality to stand the loss. In *Stevens vs. City of Ludlow*[1] the Kentucky court of appeals held that the city council, having selected the depository and having directed the treasurer to keep its funds in the institution selected by it, the treasurer could not be considered liable, but that the city itself had assumed responsibility for the integrity and solvency of the institution selected. Most municipalities, however, try to avoid the possibility of such a situation by requiring surety bonds or collateral security for deposits of municipal funds.

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[1] 82 S. E. R. 56.

[2] 142 P. R. 947.

[3] 65 S. R. 783.

[4] 65 S. R. 805.

✣

Recall of Officers.—Various recall provisions of the states having that interesting institution are giving rise to considerable discussion and some litigation. In *Mills vs. Nickens*,[2] the Washington supreme court had before it for construction a constitutional provision requiring that a petition to recall an officer of a city of the first class shall be signed by not less than 25 per cent of the qualified electors of such city, computed from the total number of votes cast at the preceding election, for candidates for the office from which the attempt is being made to recall an official. It was held that the words "at the preceding election" mean the next preceding election held for the election of councilmen whether that election was the one at which the particular councilman sought to be recalled was elected or a subsequent one.

The Oregon supreme court, in a case, *Smith vs. Barbur*, not yet reported, has held that even in the absence of specific legislation as to the form of the ballot, the question as to whether an officer should be recalled must be submitted as a separate proposition and unless carried by a majority vote that the subsequent vote for candidates to succeed him should not be considered. The point insisted on by the plaintiff in this case was that the officer against whom a recall petition had been filed and who did not thereupon resign, should be voted on as one of the candidates for the office at the recall election, but that no question specifically as to the recall was authorized under the Oregon constitution. The supreme court thus upheld the right of a citizen to vote on the specific question as to the recall of a particular officer rather than throwing the matter open for a choice among several candidates.

✣

Meat Inspection and the Police Power.—The power of a municipality to regulate the slaughtering of animals and to require an inspection of carcasses when meat is to be sold, was sustained by the supreme judicial court of Maine in *State vs. Starkey.*[3] The court held that the public health is to such an extent the foundation of the public good that individual convenience and profit must be enjoyed in proper subjection to and observance of laws affecting the public health. That based on that principle a regulation instituted for the purpose of preventing injury to the public and which is reasonably adapted to furnish the desired protection is constitutional and is a valid police regulation.

✣

Bidding on Contracts.—The right of the lowest bidder under an advertised competition to have a hearing before a valid contract can be awarded to a higher bidder, is sustained by the supreme court of New Jersey in *Armitage vs. Mayor, etc., of Newark.*[4] While the court held that a public body, if it desires to change the terms of such a competition, has the right to reject all bids and advertise for new ones, it decided that such a body could not award a valid contract under such an advertised competition to one who was not the lowest bidder. The court further held that in such a competition the bids called for must be for identical work, including the length of time to complete it, since in no other way could the competition be the same for all bidders. The spectacle of public bodies calling for bids and awarding contracts to other than the lowest bidder on account of the personality of the bidders, or other reasons not connected with the bidding itself, is an unpleasant one, and decisions of this sort should do much to correct it.

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[1] 169 S. W. R. 473.

[2] 142 P. R. 1145.

[3] 90 A. R. 431.

[4] 90 A. R. 1035.

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Multiplying Nuisances.—In *De Moll vs. City of New York*,[1] the court had the rather complicated situation of an alleged nuisance caused by two separate agencies and had to determine whether the result of the two agencies co-existing being a nuisance, the two things themselves could also be considered nuisances and so abated. The agencies in question were a tank for the storage of gasoline maintained by the defendant on its own property below the surface of the street, and a private alley way with a cess-pool or drain to carry off water that accumulated in the alley. The drain having become clogged caused water to collect in the alley itself and the gasoline tank allowed gasoline to escape, and spreading over the surface of the accumulated water became ignited and resulted in an injury to the plaintiff. The court held, however, that neither of the separate units of the combination being a nuisance in itself, the combination could not, therefore, be considered a nuisance.

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Basement Sales Rooms.—The authority of a city council to enact an ordinance prohibiting the retail sale of goods on a floor more than twenty feet below the street grade, but at the same time permitting the retail sale of goods 12 stories above the street, was questioned in *City of Chicago vs. Maudee Bros.*[2] The ground was taken that such an ordinance is unreasonable, as unduly discriminating against basement sales, on the ground that a basement may be made as safe as any floor above the street. The court held that the question of the relative safety of the basement and upper floors of the building was one before the council at the time of the passage of the ordinance, and that the decision of the council on the question of the reasonableness or unreasonableness of the regulation, in the absence of other questions raised, is final.

⁂

Special Assessments and Proceedings in Rem.—Statutes providing for the levy and collection of special assessments for public improvements ordinarily provide for their collection by proceedings *in rem.* Under such a statute the supreme court of Alabama, in *City of Decatur vs. Southern R. R. Company*,[3] held that the statutory proceeding *in rem* is exclusive and that a personal judgment against the property owner for the amount of the assessment cannot be recovered. In the case in question a special assessment had been levied against the right of way of the railroad company. The statute by authorizing its collection only by the proceeding *in rem* and the property of the railroad company not being subject to sale for failure to pay, rendered the levy unenforcible. The city, therefore, had nothing more valuable than a cloud on the company's title.

IV. MISCELLANEOUS

Chicago Psychopathic Laboratory.—The Chicago municipal court, under the leadership of Chief Justice Olson, is making still further valued contributions to modern penology. A psychopathic laboratory has been installed with Dr. W. J. Hickson in charge. In his address before the American Association for the Study of Feeble-Minded, Dr. Hickson declared it to be his opinion that crime is a disease and must be so regarded. "Of 245 boys examined in the Chicago psychopathic laboratory since its establishment on May 1, only 18 were found to be normal mentally. In the light of these disclosures it becomes quite easy to accept the idea that a diseased brain is at the bottom of diseased behavior, and it is high time that we are dropping, in these cases, the idea of criminality."

The Chicago plan is to have an experimental as well as a practical laboratory for the study of crime—a laboratory similar to those of Kraepelin, Sizhen, Bleuler, Sommers, Bonhoeffer, Raymond and Janet in Europe, except that it is to be devoted exclusively to court cases.

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[1] 148 N. Y. S. 667.

[2] 106 N. E. R. 181.

[3] 65 S. R. 536.

Although the Chicago psychopathic laboratory is set down in the midst of the Municipal Court and works in conjunction with each of its specialized branches, Doctor Hickson's paper dealt more especially with the working of the laboratory in relation to the recently established Boys' Court.

An examination of 245 boys from this court has revealed the following results: Only 18 tested normal on the Binet-Simon scale (a standardized list of questions and mental tests, the answers to which determine the mental age of the subject). In other words, only 7.34 per cent had a normal intellectual development; only 20, or 8.18 per cent, were borderland cases; and 207, or 84.49 per cent, were morons (persons whose mental age is below their physical age).

"The average chronological age of these morons," Doctor Hickson reports, "was 18.71 years; their basal age, 8.69 years and the total mental average 10.98 years. The normal cases showed an average chronological age of 20.94 years and a mental age of 12.70. The borderland cases averaged slightly lower. Our findings in the Boys' Court were so bad that we have been giving our different tests with the greatest leniency and interpreting the answers with the greatest liberality. Even under these conditions, however, the average mental age of the boys brought before us was 8.69 years.

"The significance of these findings cannot be taken too deeply to heart. The situation is so misunderstood and inconsistent that immediate remedial measures are demanded. These mental children deserve our pity rather than our present attitude of indifference, for they are irresponsible.

"They should not be driven from pillar to post, relentlessly hounded, treated with contempt and punishment, as they now are under the blanket of our ignorance. Light on the subject must be spread broadcast at once, and the proper humane, medical and constructive means instituted."

The Boys' Court, with which Doctor Hickson has co-operated to the fullest extent, was established to meet a demand for the same kind of specialized treatment that juveniles are receiving in the Juvenile Court. It was created because of the belief—since verified—that many delinquents between the ages of 17 and 21 were suffering from retarded adolescence and deserved the assistance that special courts with the co-operation of social agencies could give them.

Chief Justice Olson tries to account for the large number of boys that have been coming into the Boys' Court by the fact that the court is a new court, being inaugurated in March of this year; that it is surrounded by very efficient civic and social agencies which have taken great pains to find work for boys brought into it; and that as a result the police have been taking in many of the troublesome boys in their districts in the hope of helping them.

Results in the Morals Court so far have revealed conditions almost as bad as those found from the study of the Boys' Court. The records are not quite so full as in the case of the Boys' Court but already have gone far enough to see that about the same kind of condition exists there as in the Boys' Court.

The Domestic Relations Court also has contributed its quota of feeble-mindedness to our already overflowing list. There is no doubt that a large percentage of marital unhappiness and shipwreck has feeble-mindedness at its foundation.

If the Chicago Municipal Court, through the co-operation of experts like Doctor Hickson, can ascertain the cause of crime and abnormality and apply the remedy, it will be making a contribution of the highest value to the human race.

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Standardizing By-Laws of Chambers of Commerce and Similar Associations.—At the joint convention of the members of the American association of commercial executives and of the Central association of commercial secretaries, held at Cincinnati the last week in September, at which time a consolidated body under the name of the National association of commercial organization secretaries was effected, one of the important reports that was presented and adopted, was that of a committee on standardization, in the form of a draft of model by-laws, suitable for commercial and civic organizations in cities of from 10,000 to 100,000 population.

The committee which was composed of 19 secretaries, with Munson Havens, secretary of the Cleveland chamber of commerce as chairman, had been at work on its report for more than a year. As a preamble to the by-laws submitted, 10 general structural principles essential in by-laws of a commercial organization which had been approved by the American association in September, 1913, were presented. I quote as important, from those general principles, the following:

(2) Qualifications for membership should be stated with sufficient breadth to include all eligible persons; but provision should be made for reasonable care in the admission of members, as to their character, financial responsibility and sympathy with the general objects of the organization; provision for the suspension or dismissal of a member for cause.

(5) Provision that the source of nomination for the governing group of the organization shall be the membership at large; and provision for the exercise of a choice by the membership in the election of nominees to the governing group.

(6) Provision that the governing group shall have ample power and certain jurisdiction; but provision for a reversal of the action of this group in a regular manner by the organization itself; and provision that at regular stated intervals the governing group shall be required to present a report to the membership.

(7) Provision that the governing group shall elect the officers of the organization.

(8) Provision that committees shall be named by the president, subject to confirmation by the governing group; and provision that every action of every committee shall be subject to review by the governing group before becoming the action of the organization, but provision that general policies and reasonable freedom of action in specific cases in a particular line of activity by a group of members interested in that line—either through the creation of a subsidiary organization (such as a board or department) or by committee.

(9) Provision that the executive officer of the organization shall be elected by the governing group, and that he shall have the power of appointing and discharging all other employees; but provision that salaries shall be fixed by the governing group, or by a committee to whom the governing group may delegate that power.

Interesting as a step forward in the stated objects of commercial organizations, and illustrating the evolution of the sphere of activities of such organizations, is the incorporation in section 1 of the constitution of "civic interests" as one of the purposes for which organization is effected. Time was, not so many years ago, when the chambers of commerce, boards of trade and other business organizations were supposed to be devoted exclusively to matters of trade and commerce. In these days many organizations are recognizing that on them rests a large responsibility for co-operation with and actual leadership of many movements designated as civic. A definite illustration of this new attitude was afforded by Minneapolis when, a few years ago, several of their commercial organizations were consolidated under one body, which has definitely recognized civics in its title, namely, the "Minneapolis Civics and Commerce Board."

Article 3 relating to boards of directors, provides that the direction of the work of the chamber of commerce and the control of its property, shall be vested in a board consisting of 15 members all of them to be elected annually. The board is to elect the secretary and fix his salary, and the secretary shall, upon his election, become a member of the board of directors. Under article 4, relating to officers, section 4 outlines the duties of the secretary, which among other things, provide that he shall appoint, have the general supervision over, and may dismiss all employees of the chamber.

Article 5, relating to committees, provides, first, that the president shall appoint all committees subject to confirmation by the board of directors. Second, an executive committee, to be composed of five members of the board, who shall transact all routine business of the chamber, shall act for the board in the interim between its meetings, shall have authority to order disbursements for the necessary expenses of the organization and audit the same for payment. Section 4 provides that "It shall be the function of committees to investigate and make recommendations. They shall report in writing to the board of directors. No standing or special committee shall represent the chamber in advocacy of or opposition to any project without the specific confirmation of the board of directors, or such confirmation as may be clearly granted under general powers delegated by the board of directors to that committee."

Article 6 provides for the formation of subsidiary organizations under the name of "boards" with authority to adopt such by-laws, rules and regulations as may be necessary for its proper government, but none of which shall in any way conflict with the purposes and objects of the chamber, as set forth in its charter and providing that no action or resolution of any subsidiary board shall be binding upon or expressive of the sense of the chamber of commerce.

Under the article relating to meetings, definite provision for the consideration of resolutions provides that they must be offered at meetings in writing and that no member shall read or offer for action, any communication, report or resolution until it has previously had the approval of the board of directors, without first making a general statement of the subject-matter thereof. Should any two members object to its presentation it shall be referred to an advisory committee of three, to be immediately appointed by the presiding officer. After hearing any statement the member offering, or the members objecting to its presentation may desire to make, this advisory committee shall report the matter back to the meeting with its recommendation that it be presented to the meeting, or that its presentation be deferred. This provision guards against the introduction and action upon matters which upon a more careful consideration by a regular committee might be deemed as irrelevant or not worthy of consideration.

The model constitution is distinctive in a number of respects, important among which is the method of selecting the officers of the chamber itself, which is to be by the board of directors and not by a direct vote of all of the members. The committee in making this report, stated that it had aimed to make provision for an organization that should be as democratic as possible, and that should really vest the direction of the organization itself in the members, and in providing for the election of officers by the executive board, rather than by the chamber itself, they felt that they were adhering to that aim, especially as provision had been made for an orderly nomination of directors from the entire body of the membership and the judging of the election by men in no way to be considered as candidates for any position on the board.

The constitution was unanimously adopted by the commercial secretaries, with the recommendation that it was desirable that as many chambers of commerce as possible, in re-drafting constitutions, aim to make them conform, so far as possible, to the model proposed.[1]

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A New Kind of Improvement Meeting.—On October 9, 1914, there occurred at Bristol, Pennsylvania, a meeting so unconventional in character and conduct as to be worth noting. The meeting included the burgesses and commissioners and many other of the officials of some twenty boroughs and townships in the lower end of Bucks county. It was called under the auspices of the borough of Bristol, and presided over by the burgess. The motto of the meeting, as stated on the program and on the buttons which the delegates and guests were asked to wear, was "Co-operative Citizenship Counts," and the announcement was made that this was "Suburban Improvement Day."

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[1] Richard B. Watrous, secretary American Civic Association.

Addresses were delivered by Burgess Thomas Scott of Bristol, setting forth the desire and intent of the meeting; by Edward M. Bigelow, highway commissioner of Pennsylvania, on co-operation in highway improvement work; by Major John C. Groome, head of the notably efficient Pennsylvania state constabulary, descriptive of the aims, practices, ideals and methods of his force, particularly as related to suburban patrol and helpfulness in the enforcement of such laws as the forest, fish and game laws, in addition to the ordinary statutes. Dr. Lewis, principal of the William Penn high school of Philadelphia, made a most striking and inspiring address on the way to make the schools better and the school building useful. J. Horace McFarland, president of the American civic association, spoke on "Co-operation in Improvement Work," describing instances where co-operative citizenship had counted, and other instances where lack of co-operation among the various agencies had brought promising movements to naught. He particularly emphasized the value of co-ordinated improvement work between the communities in its relation to possible industrial betterment. Following him, Mr. Bigelow reiterated his experience and beliefs in connection with the influence of improved highways on the appearance and value of abutting properties.

The addresses of the day were in a measure tied together by the final talk given by Alba B. Johnson, president of the Suburban metropolitan planning commission of Philadelphia, who described the powers and outlined the possibilities of this newly formed commission, which controls, under legislative enactment, within a radius of 25 miles from the borders of Philadelphia.

The feature worth emphasizing in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW is the "get-together" idea, which, under the energetic organization of Joseph R. Grundy, of Bristol, brought into a community of relation so many separate towns and townships, and brought before them expert statement as to things that might be done. It can readily be seen that other meetings of this sort in various counties of various states could not but result favorably upon the improvement of rural and suburban conditions. Particularly emphatic and significant was the applause which followed Dr. Lewis' presentation as to the foolishness of the present partial use of the community's property in schoolhouses.[1]

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The Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation has been appointed for the purpose of securing the most comprehensive and thorough information possible on social conditions and agencies in Cleveland. This information is for use primarily by the foundation in deciding how the bequests received by it can best be used for the purposes for which the foundation itself has been established. These purposes are the social, industrial and civic improvement of Cleveland. The foundation can use its funds for any purpose that comes under this broad scope. No further restrictions are placed upon expenditures. The information secured by the survey will also be accessible to other agencies working for Cleveland's welfare.

There will be one marked distinction between the Cleveland survey and others made elsewhere. Other surveys have made a cross section at a given time of the community's social forces. The Cleveland survey will do this and then supplement the information. The proposed cross section of Cleveland life and labor will not be made in its entirety at one given time. The purpose is to help the community to know itself. This can be achieved only if the people of the city are carried along in their thinking with the survey as it progresses. To accomplish this, only one social interest or field of the community life will be studied at a given time, *e.g.*, public health, education, dependency, industry or recreation. While the study of one field is in process, as much material as possible will be given to the public through the newspapers, special pamphlets and public meetings. No preliminary reports will be made that would jeopardize the further conduct of the study. The survey committee hopes that this will prevent undigestible overdoses of information when the study of a given field is completed. Also, the community's thought will be helped towards the same conclusion or an intelligent criticism of a conclusion reached in any study.

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[1] From J. Horace McFarland, Harrisburg.

The question now before the survey committee is,—"What field of study shall first be undertaken?" Two principles will determine the decision; first, the field must be one of fundamental importance and of pressing necessity, as compared with other possible investigations; second, as between two fields of equal importance, the one holding the public interest will be selected. In this way, more co-operating thought will be given to the partial reports as issued, as well as to the complete survey, than would be given if this point of contact with popular interest were not established.

The members and the director of the committee are now engaged in sounding all possible currents of public opinion and individual thought in order to reach a wise decision as to the first field to be entered. The present relief survey is only an emergency study. Suggestions made to the committee already include women's work and wages; the educational value of children's occupations; the assimilation of the immigrant; the care of crippled and defective children; causes of and remedies for destitution; the school system, its governmental organization, administrative methods and curriculum; recreational needs and activities; the educational needs and possibilities of the adult and juvenile population; sources of additional municipal revenue; and a plan for developing the transportation facilities of the city. All these suggestions are being carefully considered in the light of the committee's principles of selection. Other proposals or arguments for or against any of those already suggested are desired.

The opening of The Survey office, at 612 St. Clair avenue, gives all citizens an opportunity to talk with the director and join in what will be from the outset a co-operative movement for Cleveland's further advance.

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Legal Social Work.—Some idea of the legal social service work which a modern community is endeavoring to render to its citizens may be gathered from a quarterly report of the welfare department of Dayton, Ohio, and of its legal aid division. The division comes under the supervision of the director of public welfare, the Rev. Dr. S. Frank Garland, and was started more as an experiment to find out what the needs would be and what needs could be supplied, rather than with an idea of what was to be done. Experience has demonstrated that the department is filling a long-felt want. The counsel's salary was fixed at $600 on the supposition that he would put in from 2 to 4 o'clock each afternoon, except Saturday, in the department offices; the remainder of his time to be devoted to private practice. The work has become so voluminous that he has practically given up private practice and is devoting all of his time to this work.

The department charges no fees whatsoever for any services rendered and eliminates damage, divorce, criminal, personal injury, property owners and storekeepers cases, as an attorney is in a position to get a fee in all the above cases, except criminal, and the department is not filling the place of a public defender.

The character of the work that comes within the province of the department is broad and takes in practically all branches of the law, including criminal prosecutions. To illustrate the latter: In one instance a colored contractor, in performing his written contract with the owner of certain property, maliciously employed laborers, with no intention of paying them for their work. There were 15 cases of this one contractor brought to the notice of the department and it proceeded at once to file mechanic's liens to protect their claim, and in order that a lesson might be taught other contractors, who were undoubtedly doing the same thing, the counsel instituted criminal proceedings in conjunction with the city prosecutor, going upon the theory that to one who has nothing else but work and labor to give, and that whoever takes the same from him without paying its proper value, could be prosecuted under the Ohio statute for obtaining anything of value by false pretenses. The contractor was arrested, tried, convicted, and sentenced to 60 days in the city work-house.

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Industrial Survey in Cincinnati.—The Cincinnati chamber of commerce through its civic-industrial department has started a survey of that city from the viewpoint of all the broad phases that go to make up a city, including industrial, commercial, educational and social conditions. According to a statement of that chamber: "It is proposed to get a clearer idea than ever before of all the fundamental things which affect the city's industrial strength and weakness; to know for what kind of industries the city is best equipped; to develop data which will enable the great educational system now being developed by the city to serve in the broadest possible way the varied interests of the city. The intention is to get at the bottom of things which affect the city's prosperity and growth, so that the elimination of these things can be taken up in a scientific manner."

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A "City Mother" to act in a confidential capacity with parents in juvenile cases, is the innovation which Chief of Police Sebastian of Los Angeles has introduced.

The chief's reasons for this appointment are given in his annual report:—

"Owing to the increase in the amount of work in the police juvenile bureau, much of which is of necessity of a confidential nature, this being required to protect the names of first offenders and their families, I have decided to establish a separate bureau known as the 'City Mother.' It is my intention to keep this bureau in other quarters than the police station houses, so that parents, especially mothers, will not hesitate to confide their troubles to the 'City Mother.'

"I find that many parents do not like to visit the police juvenile bureau, or either of the station houses, fearing publicity, and dreading the effect of its consequences. It will be the duty of the policewoman detailed to command this bureau to receive in confidence the statements of parents concerning their children, and to assist them in every way possible consistent with police duties.

"This being a new departure in our work, many of the details will have to be worked out as questions and obstacles are encountered."

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American Civic Association.—The tenth annual meeting of the association, which occurred in Washington, December 2, 3 and 4, 1914, was notable not only because of its decennial significance, but because of the attendance, the interest and the things said. As customary with this and similar organizations, the program was overcrowded, there being seven sessions in three days, with thirty-four speakers, of whom thirty-one were present on time, with two absent by reason of sickness.

Seven national organizations were adequately represented in short, terse, coöperative addresses at the opening session, showing a most interesting spirit of helpful interrelation. The high spots of the meeting were the president's address, in which a new position was taken in relation to the need for American city planning for American cities, as contrasted with the constant pressure for thoughtless adoption of foreign ideals; George A. Parker's notable and almost revolutionary suggestions in respect to recreation for congested population, and the picture discussion of American and Canadian national parks.

Thomas Adams, civic adviser to the Conservation commission of Canada, made two addresses of extraordinary interest, and it is not too much to say that his addresses, adequately illustrated as they were, set forward immeasurably the economic basis of city planning, as applied not only to the relief of congestion in the greater cities, but to the proper extension of the smaller communities. His second address was given in connection with the joint session of the association with the American Institute of Architects, meeting at the same time in Washington.

The question of unnecessary noises was ably handled by Mrs. Imogen B. Oakley, and this is to be one of the evils to be stressed by the association in connection with its general campaign against nuisances, including the billboard, concerning which there was a most picturesque session.

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Conference of City Managers.—The first conference of the managers of American cities was held in Springfield, December 2 to 4, at the invitation of Charles E. Ashburner who has been the city manager of that city since the inauguration of the commission manager plan there, and who prior to that was city manager of Staunton, Virginia. Eight city managers were present and an association was formed with Mr. Ashburner as president and Ossian A. Carr of Cadillac, Michigan, as secretary. Necessarily the papers presented were of a temporary value only, inasmuch as there has not been sufficient experience upon which to base serious papers. The meeting was an interesting one, however, and most suggestive in that it was the beginning of what bids fair to be a powerful movement in American cities. All chief executive officers appointed by the legislative body are eligible for membership.

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State Municipal Leagues. — *Iowa.* Home rule for Iowa cities was one of the principal subjects under discussion at the annual meeting held in Davenport early in September. A formal report on the subjects was presented by a committee headed by Mayor Alfred C. Mueller of Davenport. It recommended the appointment of a standing committee to have charge of a home rule campaign. As a result of these recommendations, the league declared itself in favor of home rule, meaning thereby the right of self-government for the cities and towns of Iowa "in matters which are municipal and purely local," and of a constitutional amendment conferring upon municipalities the right to frame or adopt or amend their own charters. Another resolution of considerable significance stated that it was the sense of the league that assessors in cities and towns should be appointed by the city or town council instead of being elected by the people, as is now provided by statute.

Virginia. The League of Virginia Cities likewise expressed itself favorably to home rule and the city manager plan of government and the enactment of a bill giving each city in the state power to create a city planning commission to prepare suitable plans for the symmetrical development of the cities.

Minnesota. At the Mankato meeting of the League of Minnesota Municipalities, perhaps the most interesting feature was the paper read by Frederick H. Bass, professor of engineering at the state university on the subject of "Engineering Co-operation, a Plan for Municipal Efficiency." He proposed the establishment of an engineering bureau that would act in more than an advisory capacity for the smaller cities of the state, a bureau that would take upon itself the technical and professional services in each municipality. Few of the smaller towns in the community are in a position to secure expert assistance of which they are in great need, and the establishment of an engineering bureau might enable them to command high grade services.

Another interesting feature was the report on the model village as a result of a survey conducted by a special committee of the league. In an effort to interest more of the cities and villages of the state in the league and to present to the state the constructive purposes of the organization, the executive committee asked a bureau of municipal research to conduct a survey of one of the smaller cities. Herman, a village of 800, was selected because it appeared to be fairly representative of the smaller towns that are springing up in Minnesota without plans for future growth. A party of 10 spent two days in Herman looking over the field and presented their views at a community gathering on the second day of the survey. These reports were made with a view to presenting suggestions applicable to all smaller towns. Just how fruitful the work in Herman will be and how effective the example will be is yet to be disclosed.

Texas. The city manager plan was the leading subject discussed at the Houston meeting of the League of Texas Municipalities, November 10 and 11. In the address of the retiring president, Mayor Wooldridge, of Austin, high tribute was paid to the work of the bureau of municipal research and reference of the University of Texas. The need for civil service merit rules in Texas cities was presented by Paul H. Sheldon, and was regarden as significant because the merit system is not at the present time very strong. The league went on record as favoring a state law similar to that passed in Kansas confirming the right of cities to appropriate general funds for league dues and expenses of delegates to the annual convention.

The Northwest. The League of Pacific Northwest Municipalities discussed the municipal ownership of public utilities, presenting a distinguished list of speakers.

California. In connection with the meeting of the League of California Municipalities at Del Monte, October 12 to 15, the subject of city planning received for the first time detailed consideration. The meeting was held under the joint auspices of the league and the University extension division of the University of California.

City planning was inaugurated on a permanent basis. Its purposes as outlined at the first conference are:

(1) To create the widest possible understanding of the need, to show that it is practicable and sensible from the economic and social as well as the aesthetic standpoint; and to unite all separate movements for city planning in the various cities of the state into one strong central body.

(2) To secure the drafting of comprehensive laws for the establishment of city planning commissions with powers best calculated to serve the interests of the community, with just regard for personal property interests of the individual.

(3) To assemble data, reports and general information concerning successful city planning work in other states and in Europe for the benefit of California communities; to encourage the establishment of city planning commissions and organizations and to help them as far as possible in their work.

The Illinois Municipal League was reorganized at its meeting in Urbana in October. Following the precedent of Wisconsin, Texas, and Kansas, a professor connected with the state university was made secretary of the organization, Dr. John A. Fairlie being chosen. He was at one time secretary of the League of Michigan Municipalities while connected with the University of Michigan.

Kansas. The League of Kansas Municipalities expressed a good deal of interest in the city manager plan and adopted resolutions recommending the abolition of the national party designations at municipal elections. It also recommended that all bonds issued by the cities be paid serially in not to exceed 20 annual instalments.

A Municipal Improvement Exhibit.—A long standing conviction on the part of the head of the department of architecture of the University of California, the secretary of the League of California Municipalities and others interested in municipal improvement in California has been that the public buildings in the cities of the state are far below architectural par. This led the bureau of municipal reference of the university to undertake the collection of a municipal improvement exhibit consisting of photographs of the most noteworthy and most commendable examples of municipal improvement in California, the purpose being to stimulate an interest among the cities in securing improvements similar to those in cities of the same size in other parts and to direct their attention to high standards of civic architecture.

An invitation was sent to the city officials to send in photographs of their public buildings and as a result over 400 were received. These were inspected by Professor John Galen Howard, head of the department and a jury of architects. Their action in eliminating over three fourths of the photographs submitted testified to the poor standards existing in the state. The exhibit consisted of photographs of city halls, libraries, schools, auditoriums, bridges, playgrounds, parks and industrial buildings such as water works and electric light stations.

The exhibit was first shown at the annual convention of the League of California Municipalities at Del Monte last October as one of the features of the first California conference on city planning. Since then the section on bridges has been sent to a small town in the northern part of the state and the school section to an Alameda county city.

The bureau is preparing to mount the exhibit in such form that it may be sent out as a whole to stimulate interest in a community to better their public buildings or in sections to boards of trustees and other public bodies who are preparing to erect new public buildings.

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The American Society of Municipal Improvements held its annual convention in Boston, October 5 to 8. Its program as in previous years dealt largely with the problems of construction. The address of Mayor Curley of Boston was filled with interesting information concerning what Boston had been doing along construction lines, among other things reporting the building of 25 miles of concrete sidewalk each year, motorizing the fire department, and constructing a high pressure water system. Colonel Sohier, the chairman of the Massachusetts highway commission, stated his conviction that the present high efficiency of road work in Massachusetts had been maintained by keeping employees who had been trained in its service, instead of discharging them with every change of administration, a policy that could well be followed by construction departments of all the cities and states.

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A Municipal Maternity Hospital.—The Bradford (England) city council has adopted a scheme submitted by the health committee for the establishment of a small maternity hospital carried on by the city. The charges for each case attended at home are 10 shillings, and for each case in the institution 10 shillings plus one shilling per day for maintenance. By this arrangement it is hoped materially to reduce the rapid decline in birth rate so prevalent in Bradford and other places.

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The Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry has completed an inquiry into the number of unemployed persons in the state. In reporting the results of its investigations it suggests that cities should not only establish employment agencies, but also so far as expedient undertake public works as a means of affording relief. John Price Jackson, commissioner of labor and industry, who recently returned from Europe where he made a study of industrial conditions, states that in Germany and England they are endeavoring to use public works as an outlet for unemployed labor and are, he understands, successfully carrying out this method.

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The Homeless Poor of London.—It seems that the homeless poor of London is on the decline. On June 5, there were only 258 casuals in the wards, whereas, on the corresponding day, 1913, there were 391. This number being less by about seventy than the figure for the end of June, 1912. Since October, 1912, the Metropolitan asylums board has administered a scheme for providing for homeless persons found in the streets of central London at night. Persons found without shelter between 10 p. m. and 2 a. m. are given an order of admission, either to a casual ward or a shelter, according to circumstances. The scheme has proved so successful that its area of operation is to be increased.[1]

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Minor Municipalities Prize at Rutgers College.—Hoping to interest Rutgers men in the subject of the most satisfactory management of municipalities, a resident of Highland Park[2] has offered a prize of $50 for the best essay, length unlimited, on the management and organization of minor municipalities in New Jersey. The subject may be treated in any manner that the writer desires, but a few suggestions are given: In the first place, to consider the provisions in the constitution concerning municipalities, and what general or special statutes have been enacted on the subject. An adequate study might be made of the progress of commission government and the possibility of its adaptation to the minor municipalities of New Jersey under the law of 1911. A study of the government of some of the nearby boroughs, whose population varies from 1,500 to 3,000, is to be made at first hand and a report of the examination of one borough given in detail.

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[1] From Robert M. Jameson, University of Texas.

[2] A residential suburb of New Brunswick.

Suggestions are then to be made by the writer as regards the best method of administration of minor municipalities, whether by (1) town meeting, (2) elective council, (3) commission government, (4) paid expert. What is the best method of financing improvements? What is the character of the improvements which are to be financed by long-term bonds? What by short-term bonds? What improvements should be paid from the annual income?[1]

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English Municipal Strikes.—A number of English cities have been embarrassed of late by strikes on the part of the employees of the municipal utility companies. How to prevent these strikes is a question which is receiving a great deal of attention, not only at the hands of the municipal authorities, but also of the officials of the corporations involved. The clause which the North Metropolitan Electric Power company has inserted in its new bill is attracting widespread attention in England. It provides:—"Where a person employed by a municipal authority or by any company or contractor upon whom is imposed by Act of Parliament the duty, or who have otherwise assumed the duty of supplying any city, borough, town, or place, or any part thereof, with gas or water, wilfully and maliciously breaks a contract of service with that authority or company or contract or, knowing or having reasonable cause to believe that the probable consequence of his so doing, either alone or in combination with others, will be to deprive the inhabitants of that city, borough, town, place, or part, wholly or to a great extent of their supply of gas or water, he shall on conviction thereof by a court of summary jurisdiction or on indictment as hereinafter mentioned be liable either to pay a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds or to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three months, with or without hard labor."

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Co-operative Stores.—A co-operative association for municipal officers and public servants is proposed in England. After mature consideration, it has been decided to proceed by means of a limited liability company.

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Purchase of Prison-Made Goods by New York Municipalities.—Under a law of 1896 the cities of New York state, as well as the state itself and other political subdivisions thereof, are required to purchase from the prisons of the state such diversified goods as are manufactured by the prisoners and are suitable for public use. This law absolutely prohibits the purchase in the open market of goods which may be bought from the prisons and declares that no claim for any article manufactured by the prisons and purchased from another source shall be audited without a certificate of the state prison commission to the effect that the article could not be furnished. In the absence of provision for effective supervision of purchases, audit, and accounts by the prison commission it is manifest that this requirement of the law would be exceedingly difficult to enforce. No such provision exists. It is not surprising, therefore, that the prison commission comes forward with the statement that many cities are persistently ignoring the law and cites a long list of offenders whose authorities have purchased few, if any, prison manufactures for a number of years.

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Professor Charles G. Haines of Whitman College has accepted a call to the chair of political science at the University of Texas. While in the state of Washington Dr. Haines took an active part in municipal affairs, serving as secretary of the League of Northwest Cities.

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[1] From Edward T. Paxton (Rutgers 1914), assistant in the bureau of municipal research and reference of the University of Texas.

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Professor Ralph E. George, formerly of Lehigh University, has accepted the chair of associate professor of economics and business at Whitman College, Walla Walla, Wash.

✤

Robert A. Crosby, formerly executive secretary of the Civic Federation of New Haven, has been made head worker of the University Settlement, New York, in succession to Dr. Henry Moskowitz, now president of the Board of Civil Service Commissioners of New York City. Mr. Crosby is succeeded as secretary of the Civic Federation by T. F. Moench of Philadelphia, local secretary of the North American Civic League for Immigrants.

✤

Ralph Bowman, formerly secretary of the Municipal Government Association of New York and recently a director of the Bureau of Municipal Research in Milwaukee, has been made director of the Philadelphia Bureau of Municipal Research in succession to Dr. Jesse D. Burks. Frederick P. Gruenberg will become assistant director.

✤

Oliver McClintock of Pittsburgh, after a useful term of service, has retired from the presidency of the Civic Club of Allegheny County. Mr. McClintock for many years has been one of the leading factors for municipal progress in Pittsburgh, and as a member of the council of the National Municipal League has been one of its most active coadjutors.

✤

Dr. Delos F. Wilcox of New York has been appointed deputy commissioner of the department of water supply, gas and electricity. Dr. Wilcox was formerly chief of the bureau of franchises of the Public Service Commission of the First District, New York, but since July 1, 1913, he has been engaged in private practice as a consulting franchise and public utility expert. Last summer he was employed to take charge of the valuation of the private water companies operating in New York City, such companies being subject to regulation as to rates and services by the commissioner of the water department. In addition to the regular duties of his new office, Dr. Wilcox will carry forward to completion this valuation work.

✤

Mrs. Owen Wister.—The Civic Club of Philadelphia of which she was president has issued a pamphlet entitled "In Memoriam: Mrs. Owen Wister," containing many tributes paid to Mrs. Wister both as a woman and as an active factor in the civic life of Philadelphia, of Pennsylvania and of the nation. Mrs. Wister was a founder of the club and held nearly every position of prominence within its gift. The pamphlet is interesting alike as a civic document and as a tribute to a strong personal factor in the modern civic movement.

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The Very Rev. Walter T. Sumner, D. D., dean of the Episcopal Cathedral, Chicago, who has been an active force in municipal affairs, chairman of the first Vice Commission, and a member of the Chicago school board, has been elected Bishop of Oregon.

✤

Thomas Mott Osborne has been appointed warden of Sing Sing, the New York state prison. Mr. Osborne is a well-known reformer and man of affairs. He has been three times mayor of Auburn and was a member of the first up-state public service commission, having been appointed by Governor Hughes. He was a member of the council of the National Municipal League for two years and has for many years been one of its active supporters.

✤

The Municipal Government Association of New York, Walter T. Arndt, secretary, has opened offices in the New York City Club house. The two organizations have been working in harmony for some time past and this move is designed to bring about a still more effective co-operation.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLICATIONS

I. BOOK REVIEWS

Municipal Life and Government in Germany. By William Harbutt Dawson. London: Longmans, Green and Company. $3.75.

The methods and results of German city administration have long since commanded admiration in America. Yet the problem of getting a fair and accurate account of these things has been one of considerable difficulty. Very little of any value has been written in English on the administrative side of German local government; and the average American student of municipal affairs has neither the time nor the patience to work his way through the various German year books of statistics and manuals of administrative law. Mr. Dawson has therefore undertaken a useful task in his attempt to give English readers a clear statement of what the German cities set out to do and how far they succeed in doing it.

The volume deals both with the organization of German city government and with its day-to-day functions. The larger portion of the book, however, is devoted to the latter subject. Every important branch of civic activity gets its share of attention: city planning and land policy, housing, public health, poor relief, finance and municipal operation of public utilities, each has one or more chapters. The treatment is both descriptive and critical, but on the whole the author's attitude towards German methods is distinctly sympathetic. He sees much to admire in all branches of German administration and much that might profitably find imitation in England. Too often, however, this admiration carries him beyond the bounds of accuracy and in some cases to general statements which are absurd. Here is a good example:

> "Let the town clerk of an English municipal borough," Mr. Dawson tells us, "be asked what powers his council can exercise, and he will point to volumes of laws and heaps of text books . . . for nothing can be done for which there is not express legal sanction. . . . On the other hand, let the mayor of a German town be similarly questioned, and he will at once answer that there is practically no limit to the administrative powers which he and his colleagues may exercise; they can do everything, in fact, that the good government of the town may seem to require." (p. 33.)

The German mayor who would make any such answer would be talking nonsense, as the author himself unwittingly proves in the latter part of the same chapter (pp. 43–57). If Mr. Dawson had placed more dependence upon the published laws of the land and less upon conversations with members of the municipal bureaucracy, he would have kept many such sweeping statements from marring the pages of his book. There is no more certain way of getting an exaggerated statement of a German official's powers and influence than by taking the *ipse dixit* of the official himself.

On the other hand, the author has shown great diligence in hunting up figures and considerable skill in putting them together. The four chapters on municipal taxation, for example, give an excellent survey of this complicated subject. The discussions of housing policy, poor relief and local school administration, while somewhat sketchy, are also worth the attention of the American reader who is interested in these things. Other chapters, such as those relating to trading enterprises and social welfare work, contain little more than an array of statistical details. Unfortunately, moreover, the author gives us, in most cases, no indication as to the source of his financial data. Anyone who has had much occasion to use the financial reports of German cities and has learned how easily they can be misinterpreted, will regard this avoidance of references as a very grave defect. Nevertheless, a volume which is so encyclopedic in its details is sure to prove of service as a work of reference.

William Bennett Munro.
Harvard University.

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Applied City Government. By Herman G. James. New York: Harper and Brothers. 75 cents.

The disagreeable side of the critic's duty may be quickly completed in connection with this book by noting the inadequacy of the title to convey an idea of the nature of the contents. The work is, it is true, a constructive application of scientific knowledge about city government; but it is an application of a limited part of that knowledge only. It is concerned with but a single problem of city government, that of organization, that of the constitution of the city. It deals only with the city charter.

The sub-title reads "the principles and practice of city charter making." Here, again, a formal criticism may be made. By "principles," the author indicates his discussion of the various matters with which a charter must deal; and as "practice," he offers concrete provisions which together form a model charter conforming to the conclusions reached in the critical discussion. The discussion of principles, however, leads the author to the acceptance of certain features of organization and to the positive rejection of others. The result is that the constructive treatment is confined to a single type of city government—the commission-manager form. The principles of the recall, general referendum and initiative are approved, and incorporated as essentials. In short, the book presents, and presents only, the most advanced ideas on city organization.

Only incidental aid is offered to those cities which prefer to remain under one of the older forms of organization. Taken, however, in conjunction with Nathan Matthews "Municipal Charters," constructive material is now available for the three important forms of American city government to-day: the responsible-executive type, the commission type, and the commission-manager type.

The work under review is probably the most important acquisition that can be made by the library of a city that is contemplating a manager form of government. The advantages of this type and the principles to be applied in its organization are stated with the utmost succinctness. The various matters proper to a city charter are discussed in logical sequence, the discussion being immediately followed in each case by a model provision. The discussion and provisions are not exhaustive. Only the most strictly essential points are covered. The model is a skeleton only, but an extremely useful one. As director of the bureau of municipal research and reference at the University of Texas, Dr. James has had experience that enables him to anticipate the chief questions confronting charter commissions. A well-selected bibliography of the commission and manager plans is appended.

Robert T. Crane.
University of Michigan.

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A Treatise on the Law of Public Utilities Operating in Cities and Towns. By Oscar L. Pond, Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company. $6. 352 P79P

This treatise on the law of municipal utilities purports (1) "to ascertain both the nature of the municipal corporation as expressed in the law and in the construction which the courts have given to the powers conferred upon the municipality by the state, to discover what limitations are placed on municipal activity by our constitutions, as construed by the courts; and (2) how far the judicial construction of the law with regard to the taxation and sale of municipal public utilities facilitates or impedes the cities in the discharge of these new duties imposed by the ownership, operation or proper regulation and control of municipal public utilities, which they are being called upon to assume; and also (3) to ascertain what are the most efficient methods of regulation and control available to the state or municipality over the operation by private capital of municipal public utilities." (p. 3). The treatise is especially valuable in covering the first two classes of topics. The author, with a legal bent and legal training, has made a collection of leading precedents in perplexing utility problems of inestimable value to all students of the subject.

The book is a mine of facts, all worth while and all worth having at hand in such ready reference form. It is difficult to pick out types of the facts included in its 954 pages. The reader, for instance, will be cited references on the point that the courts have not favored exclusive franchises "and have refused to recognize the power of municipal corporations in the absence of statutory authority to grant exclusive franchises or to imply that a franchise was exclusive where any other reasonable construction was possible in case it was found that the municipality granting the franchise had the legal right to make it exclusive." Interesting cases are also cited to show that a contract for division of territories among competitors is void, the court holding that to abandon the right to its territory conferred on a company by its charter is to "abandon a public duty" and the court of equity will not "aid either party in the enforcement of such a contract. . . . The contract between these corporations tends to create and perpetuate a monopoly in the furnishing of gas to the city, and is therefore against public policy."

On the other hand, cases are cited to show that an exclusive franchise may be waived for the apparent effect of creating competition. "This right to exclude competition," one court held, "was not a right vested in the company for the benefit of the public, because in its very nature it was injurious to the public; but it was a right vested in the company for its own benefit, which it might, therefore, surrender with the consent of its stockholders."

The various chapters deal with the construction of municipal charters, what are municipal purposes within the meaning of the constitution, the implied powers of municipal corporations, the constitutional limitation of municipal indebtedness, the franchise, utility contracts, discrimination in service, liabilities and negligence of municipalities, and public utilities, exemption from taxation, sale of property providing municipal public utilities, street and highway privileges of municipal public utilities, the right to fix rates and the reasonablencss of rates, regulations for telephone service, municipal ownership, municipal bureaus or commissions, and state public utility commissions.

The discussions of policy are often doctrinaire and relatively valueless. The author is most at home at giving digests of cases. The book is to be heartily commended, however, as an indispensable source book to all interested in the legal phases of the relations between municipal utilities and governmental bodies of the city or state. It represents a great amount of painstaking work, coupled with good judgment and thoroughgoing knowledge.

Clyde Lyndon King.

University of Pennsylvania.

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Progressivism and After. By W. E. Walling, New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.50.

An acute observer has remarked that Mr. Walling is one of few socialists who do not write their own books over every year or two, meaning thereby that he does not revolve in speculative dialectics, but is always seeking new light through a fresh examination of the concrete stuff of politics. A few years ago Mr. Walling wrote a stimulating and informing book on the drift of modern socialism, which was rightly hailed by students as a real contribution to the subject and was doubtless considered worthy of notice by some of our least obtuse politicians. Mr. Walling then attempted a volume on the philosophical aspects of socialism which was not so successful, although it was probably as lucid as anything philosophical can be. In the volume before us, our author has returned to his first method, that of examining the drift of politics as reflected in the writings of those whose position and influence in that sphere make their observations both real and significant.

Though the volume bears the title of "Progressivism and After" it might be accurately characterized as an analysis of the relation of progressivism to the socialistic stream of tendency. It will doubtless be surprising to Progressives and Socialists, for it portrays the former as leading the way to a state capitalism, controlled and regulated, which, in turn, is but the precursor of state socialism. Socialists, on the other hand, will be unhappy to find that the path to socialism, or social democracy, leads through a period of rule by capitalists and the élite of labor, which, although it will be marked by immense social improvement, will be about as undemocratic as the German bureaucracy. In other words, according to Mr. Walling, we shall have a period of regulated capitalism, in fact we are well into that era now; that will be followed by state socialism tinged with nationalism; and finally, when capitalism and the socialistic state have prepared the machinery for social democracy, and the unskilled as well as the skilled workers have been educated for the task of assuming real power in the government, socialism, in full panoply, will be here.

Those who imagine that government ownership and regulation are in themselves socialistic will find good reason in these pages for changing their opinion. Those who suppose that laborism—dining with Mr. Gompers and Mr. Mitchell at the Century Club, for instance—is socialistic, will likewise discover the error of their way. The intimate essence of "The New Freedom" is here squeezed out and resolved into an old wine for small capitalists "on the make," and the ancient shibboleth of "equal opportunity" is subjected to a destructive analysis which puts the little red schoolhouse and kindred devices far in the rear.

It is to be profoundly hoped that some of our Chautauqua statesmen may carry this book on circuit with them and delve into its pages between acts. They will not find it a treatise on theoretical politics, but a fair argument based upon a study of the utterances and policies of the most thoughtful and important men in the country who have had the courage to deal with real economic problems. If Mr. Walling's prophecy should prove to be wrong, it is not because he has failed to keep his ear to the ground and his eyes open at the same time. The mighty Armageddon may simmer down to a campaign for a "good primary law" and the "overthrow of corrupt bosses," but Mr. Walling has made out a good case for his thesis that more serious things than these lie beyond Progressivism.

Charles A. Beard.

Columbia University,
July, 1914.

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Garden Cities and Canals. By J. S. Nettlefold. London: St. Catherine Press. 1 shilling net.

At first glance, the title of this well-written book would seem to be made up of two dissimilar factors in civilized life. What can a garden city—the newest attempt to serve humanity and economics to mutual advantage—have to do with a canal, the very old first diversion of a waterway outside the seas or the rivers?

In a clear and prophetic discussion Mr. Nettlefold makes the relation plain, and incidentally furnishes a powerful argument for a waterway and a city planning policy in the United States. The one relates to the other, and each should advantage by the other. Cheap transportation, of ample capacity, is vital to extended business, not only for its essential facilitation of business, but because of the way in which it tends to distribute population, to make available for residence and for industry the lands at lower price.

Those of us who have followed the investigations of the Sage Foundation at Pittsburgh need no restatement of the conclusions set forth by Mr. Nettlefold, to the effect that there is sociological, financial and humanitarian disadvantage in congestion; that (at least in England) congestion tends to occur at seaports because of convenience to the cheapest transportation; and that any proper means for distributing economically the workshops and the homes of the workers over a wider area should be availed of.

Mr. Nettlefold quotes at length from the thoughtful conclusions of the Royal Commission on Canals and Inland Navigation, published in their report of 1909. One statement only is here inserted:

> The cost of land is an important element in the cost of production. This depends upon competition for sites, and this again depends upon whether the factories are crowded together or are spaciously distributed. In international competition the relative cost of land is by no means a negligible element. For social and sanitary reasons the distribution of industrial populations over wider areas is to be preferred to concentration in a few crowded districts. Relative superiority in the physique and morals of its workers is an advantage to a nation. If industries are widely distributed the *workers can have better houses at lower rents, can breathe less vitiated air and they and their families can in many cases combine with factory work the healthy and profitable occupation of small agricultural production.* These advantages will be lost if by reason of the continued costliness of internal transport British staple trades are driven to mass themselves around a few seaports.

In addition to its cogent arguments for a system of inland waterways for England, all of which apply with even more force to the United States, Mr. Nettlefold's book urges the establishment of more garden cities, similar to "First Garden City," often called Letchworth. This unique industrial community, some 35 miles from London, has in eight years grown to have 7,912 inhabitants, in 1,761 buildings, working in a number of most successful factories, and so operating in respect to the human factor that the death rate has dropped from 14.1, the London rate, to a maintained average of but 8 in the thousand.

And this garden city is financially successful, as well, so that other like communities may be undertaken as favorable business ventures, rather than as a form of industrial philanthropy. Mr. Nettlefold argues forcibly for such communities to be established along the canals he advocates, and he proposes the use for power production of the fall in the canals, to check the use of the vanishing coal and the consequent making of wasteful and unhealthful smoke.

The book goes into detail as to the possibilities in the direction of its argument, and is very well worth reading. Certainly anything that can cause consideration of better living conditions for workers, better earning facilities for manufacturers, and cheaper and more certain transportation, ought to be worth the attention of all good citizens of the United States.

J. HORACE MCFARLAND.

⁂

VOLUNTEER HELP TO THE SCHOOLS. By Ella Lyman Cabot. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company. 60 cents.

Mrs. Cabot, in this compact little book of 140 pages, has analyzed and classified the various kinds of volunteer help which have been given to the schools in different communities. Mrs. Cabot has been chairman of the department of education of the Women's municipal league of Boston and can speak from experience. She has shown how the volunteer amateur may become a social expert by close co-operation with the school heads and by gathering and using specific information in certain designated fields.

The volume is in the nature of a survey of what has been done during recent years. "This study has two aims," says the author, "to suggest to the amateur how to give help and to the teaching force how to receive and guide the gifts of the public."

Volunteer help may come from many sources but in general is most serviceable in the initiation and supporting of new experiments in education and in the giving of expert service, professional or social. "The young teacher is now often an untrained social worker. She sees in her pupils needs that she does not know how to supply, or she is blind to wants that are staring from their faces. She cannot work out alone the great problems of health, housing, physical need, lack of recreation, that are silently and incessantly undermining much of her best work." Mrs. Cabot believes that public interest and personal service can remedy this.

It is distinctly encouraging to read, for instance, that the Committee on Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Charity Organization Society prepared and circulated through the public schools an essay on "What you should know about tuberculosis" and to read further that in co-operation with the departments of health and education "it maintains on a ferryboat in the harbor an original and interesting class with two teachers,"—a class made up of 40 tuberculous children.

Dental clinics, now sometimes incorporated in the regular school programs, are the outgrowth of volunteer contributions which teachers testify bring increased mental alertness. The friendly visitor in the homes of dull or unmanageable children often discovers perfectly preventable causes which are forthwith eliminated. The case records of the home and school visitors of the New York Public Education Association are pocket editions of human-interest stories with happy endings.

Under the heading of recreation, Mrs. Cabot tells of school gardens, social centers, athletics and playgrounds,—all valuable adjuncts of school life made possible by volunteer initiative.

One of the most interesting experiments recorded is that of the Massachusetts Civic League to find out (1) the cause and cure of irregular attendance in the vacation schools; (2) the most appealing and the most valuable summer curriculum; (3) the relation to one another of different agencies for recreation. The methods taken to increase interest and attendance in the vacation schools might well be adapted in some form to the regular day schools. We surely have too little of the "priceless privilege" idea on the part of parents and children in the matter of school attendance.

In the larger cities the art galleries and museums have worked out excellent schemes for educating teachers and pupils. This, with the gardening activities, forms an interesting venture into the world of aesthetic appreciation.

One of the most far-reaching experiments mentioned is that of vocational guidance. Curiously enough in Chicago the effort to *place* children leaving the grammar grades resulted in an effort to *keep* them in school, as in most cases it was found to be unnecessary for the children to work in factories or shops at so early an age, and employers were found to be less and less inclined to employ children.

Harlean James.

Baltimore.

✣

Juvenile Courts and Probation. By Bernard Flexner and Roger N. Baldwin. New York: The Century Company.

The more the citizen is admitted to the mysteries of courts and other public institutions and the more reliable tests are afforded whereby to judge the social value of the same, the better for society as a whole. From this point of view, a distinct service to the layman has been rendered by the National probation association's special committee on juvenile courts and their administration in publishing the volume before us.

Mr. Flexner and Mr. Baldwin have prepared the report which has been endorsed by their co-workers on the committee, including such helpful interpreters of childhood as Judge Ben Lindsey, Judge Mack and Julia Lathrop. At a time when women's clubs and other organizations are urging the establishment of juvenile courts in all parts of the country, it is imperative that the technique of such courts be thoroughly understood and their development studied. Interest will therefore attach to the arguments given by the authors of this volume in favor of uniform standards of administration and the recommendations which they suggest as generally applicable.

Judges and probation officers equally with the citizen will find in this volume a useful guide in the perfection of their work and in a comprehension of the problems underlying it. Much general confusion on legitimate court jurisdiction over the child is cleared up by the insistence that dependent and neglected children as such (unless exposed to open immorality) have no proper place in a juvenile court but belong instead to relief or prevention agencies. The administration of widows' or mothers' pensions would thus be diverted from the juvenile court in order that no taint of judicial interference with the family status may be attached to this form of relief.

It is the delinquent child, in the opinion of the authors, that is the proper subject for the court and this child is studied in relation to detention homes, schools, medical examinations, psychopathic clinics, segregation of cases, care of defectives, probation and indeterminate sentences. The point of view that is adhered to is that "it is primarily the child, not the act, which the court is treating."

The merit system in the appointment of probation officers is advocated but it is recognized that in this field of service personality is of prime consideration. Colored probationers for colored delinquents are approved wherever financial conditions render their employment possible. The importance of the sex line in probation work is also emphasized in these vigorous words: "It is a serious reflection on the intelligence of some of our juvenile courts that men officers are still permitted to supervise delinquent girls."

Significant of the breadth of view and modernity of the authors, also, is the fact that they realise that a far higher standard is exacted from girls on probation than from boys and that the necessity of raising it for the latter is imperative.

While this volume is a study of the juvenile court as it exists, the attempts to increase the functions of the court are outlined and declared to be legitimate and vital. "The court in the future will undertake to deal more effectively with the family which produces the neglected or delinquent child who is merely a factor in the larger and more complicated problem." Contributory delinquency thus becomes a proper study for the juvenile court and that inevitably, as the authors see, leads it to study the adult in his or her relation to social and industrial conditions just as the child is studied in its family relations. A consciousness of the need of a better organization of all public and private relief and preventive agencies is the natural outcome of such study and offers a fruitful source of inquiry and suggestion.

While this volume is technical in form, it is written with a simplicity and a reality that give it popular utility and interest.

MARY R. BEARD.

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HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS. By Ernest Bryan Hoag, M. D., and Lewis M. Terman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. $1.60.

The number and character of recent books on what is commonly called medical school inspection is encouraging. The authors of the present book have adopted the simpler but broader title of "Health Work in the Schools." They have treated their subject with equal breadth and simplicity, and with forcefulness. The book is addressed primarily to teachers, but that makes it none the less valuable for the majority of those who need information on this important subject.

The case for public supervision of the health of school children is first presented. The conclusion is reached that this supervision should preferably be vested, as is now generally the fact, in the education rather than the health board. The place of the doctor and of the school nurse is discussed, with stress upon the need of the school nurse in any event.

The various communicable diseases of children and the proper way of dealing with them in the schools are described. The teaching of health and hygiene in the schools is given careful attention. Finally, there are brief and illuminating sketches of health supervision in the schools of leading countries of the world. Reference lists at the end of each chapter and a teacher's school health library of 16 volumes, complete a well-written and useful volume.

M. N. Baker.

Montclair, N. J.

✣

Imperial Year Book for Canada. 1914–1915. Edited by A. E. Southall. Montreal: John Lovell and Son, Ltd.

This is a most satisfactory handbook of the British Empire prepared for Canadian readers; that is to say, the Canadian statistics and information are particularly full. The data have been carefully gathered and have been well arranged. Section (IV) is devoted to governmental statistics. The municipal references are not as full as they should be and as it is to be hoped they will be in future editions. The purpose of the book is accurately set forth in the editorial preface by the editor, Mr. Southall, who says:

"In the Imperial Year Book I have tried to give a concise and comprehensive review of Canadian life and activity since confederation, to show Canada's present position as a nation and her status as a self-governing dominion, to outline the constitutions and resources of her sister dominions and the other dependencies of the Empire."

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Graphic Methods for Presenting Facts. By Willard C. Brinton. New York: The Engineering Magazine Company. $4.

One of the interesting developments of the past decade has been the utilization of graphic forms in conveying the truth about municipal conditions. Dr. L. D. Upson in his article in this issue points out the contributions made in this field by the bureaus of municipal research. Mr. Brinton, who has had a long and thorough training in scientific management, has given us a striking contribution to the graphic illustration of material facts. Eliminating mathematics and technical terms, he seeks to show how these may be presented in such a way as easily to be grasped by the casual reader. The volume represents "an honest attempt toward an advance in the art of using data in graphic form," and in this the author has admirably succeeded. Prepared for the non-technical man, the book will also prove suggestive to the engineer and statistician. Students of municipal affairs may study its pages with profit in order that they may develop a growing tendency to present difficult and complicated situations in such a manner as easily to be grasped by an indifferent or ignorant public. The volume which is abundantly illustrated is one of the "Works Management Library."

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Civic Righteousness and Civic Pride. By Newton Marshall Hall. Boston: Sherman, French and Company. $1.25.

Dr. Hall preached a series of sermons in his church at Springfield, Massachusetts. They dealt with current civic problems from the point of view of a Christian minister who believes that the final factor is the human factor and that there can be no complete solution of them that "does not take into consideration the teaching of the Master of men." The sermons have been gathered into a volume which is sane and stimulating. There is an absence of rant and vituperation that shows depth and sincerity of purpose; there is a spirit of democracy that is stimulating and a sweet reasonableness that is all too frequently lacking from such forms of civic utterance. There is a happy combination of individual responsibility and emphasis on the need for community service that is reassuring.

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Handbook on the Law of Municipal Corporations. By Richard W. Cooley. St. Paul: West Publishing Company. $3.75.

This handbook presents in compact form the general principles of the law of municipal corporations. It represents an amplification of those chapters of Judge H. S. Ingersoll's book on public corporations published ten years ago which deal with municipal corporations. The aim has been to set forth concisely those fundamental principles which must be applied in any attempt to formulate and construe the law of municipal corporations as found in the various statutes. Designed primarily for students of law, it has a very considerable value both for the general practitioner and the general students. A number of chapters of Judge Ingersoll's original work have been retained in substantially their original form.

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My Neighbor. By J. S. Woodsworth. Toronto: The Missionary Society of the Methodist Church.

This volume, which is an interesting study of Canadian city conditions, is a strong plea for Christian social service. It is one of the series of text books issued by the missionary society of the Methodist Church for the forward movement in that denomination. It is an interesting and encouraging illustration of the new spirit to be found in churches on both sides of the boundary line. The author has read to good purpose and has prepared a volume which is admirably adapted to be of general service for its particular constituency. It will, however, prove interesting to a much wider group than that for which it was originally prepared.

⁂

Forty Years of It. By Brand Whitlock. New York: D. Appleton and Company. $1.50.

Brand Whitlock, who for eight years served as mayor of Toledo, in succession to Samuel M. Jones (Golden Rule Jones) and who like him was elected on a non-partisan ticket, has put into this volume his interesting experiences both as mayor and as a friend of leading radicals like Altgeld and Tom Johnson. The result is a volume of insight and suggestiveness. It loses none of its interest because of the efficient services Mr. Whitlock is now rendering as the American minister to afflicted Belgium.

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The Personality of American Cities. By Edward Hungerford. New York: McBride, Nast and Company. $2.00.

Have cities souls? Have they characters? These are questions often asked, but not always so interestingly as Mr. Hungerford has done in this volume. He has sought to embody in a chapter something of what he calls the flavor and personality of the typical American city and he has succeeded remarkably well. Originally prepared as magazine articles, the author has done well to gather these studies into a volume which may be appropriately called a contribution to municipal psychology.

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Iowa Applied History Series, Vol. II. Edited by Benjamin F. Shambaugh. Iowa: State Historical Society of Iowa.

Volume II of the Iowa Applied History Series contains the following suggestive articles: Scientific law-making; Reorganization of state government in Iowa; Home rule in Iowa; Direct legislation in Iowa; Equal suffrage in Iowa; Selection of public officials in Iowa; The merit system in Iowa; Social legislation in Iowa; Child labor legislation in Iowa; Poor relief legislation in Iowa.

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The Municipal Index. New York: The Municipal Journal. 50 cents.

This contains the references to current municipal publications on roads and pavements, sewerage, sanitation, water supply, street lighting and power, fire, police, government, finance, street cleaning, refuse disposal, traffic and transportation, structures and material, published in the *Municipal Journal* from August, 1912, to December, 1913.

II. BOOKS RECEIVED

The Boys and Girls of Garden City. By Jean Dawson. Boston: Ginn and Company. 75 cents.

A Primer of Civics. Polish Edition. By J. J. Zmrhal. Issued by the Colonial Dames of Illinois, 1914.

A Course in Citizenship. By Ella Lyman Cabot, Fannie Fern Andrews, Fanny E. Coe, Mabel Hill, Mary McSkimmon. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. $1.25.

Garden Cities and Canals. By J. S. Nettlefold. London: The St. Catherine Press. 1 shilling net.

Interpretations and Forecasts. A Study of Survivals and Tendencies in Contemporary Society. By Victor Branford. New York and London: Mitchell Kennerley. $2.50.

Studies of Trees. By J. J. Levison. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Leading Women in Social Service. Edited by Mrs. Oswald Stein. Chicago: A. C. McClurg Company.

Municipal Charters. A Discussion of the Essentials of a City Charter with Forms or Models for Adoption. By Nathan Matthews, LL.D. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. $2.

Practical Town Planning. By J. S. Nettlefold. London: The St. Catherine Press. 2 shillings.

Carrying Out the City Plan. By Flavel Shurtleff and Frederick Law Olmsted. New York: Survey Associates, Incorporated. $2.

Water Works Statistics of Thirty-eight Cities of Iowa, with the Meter Rates of Seventy Cities. By John H. Dunlap. Bulletin of the State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, 1914.

III. REVIEWS OF REPORTS[1]

Transactions of the Commonwealth Club of California.—The Commonwealth Club of California is an organization unique among the clubs of the United States. Founded 11 years ago in San Francisco as a club of a few public-spirited citizens organized to seek the facts regarding public questions without partisanship, and to discuss them without the expectation of entering on active propaganda, it has grown to be one of the largest and strongest civic organizations in the state, with a field all its own.

From the beginning the Commonwealth Club aspired to be statewide in its membership. The men present at the organization meeting included Banjamin Ide Wheeler, president of the University of California, William P. Lawlor, judge of the superior court, John P. Young, managing editor of the San Francisco *Chronicle*, Frederick Burk, president of the State Normal School of San Francisco, and Edward F. Adams, editor, publicist and moving spirit in bringing the club into existence. The present name was speedily chosen from among a dozen offered, "Commonwealth" being the suggestion of Dr. Wheeler as significant of its purposes.

In line with the statewide activities it covered, Harris Weinstock of Sacramento, merchant and sociologist, was chosen as first president, and served for five successive one-year terms. He was succeeded January, 1908, by Edward F. Adams, "the father of the club," who also served for five terms. Beverly L. Hodghead, who had served for years as vice-president of the club was then chosen president for 1913 and is now serving his second term. The controlling body of the organization is a board of governors, consisting of the ex-presidents, the president and vice-president and seven governors elected for three-year terms. It is a slowly changing body, which has governed carefully and wisely.

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[1] Under the direction of Professor Fairlie.

The discussions of the club were from the first kept on a high plane. As soon as funds could be collected they were printed and as soon as it was seen that there was an earnest effort to secure the facts covering all sides of a subject, they began to attract attention. Speedily the club grew in numbers until at the time of the great conflagration of 1906 it had a membership of about two hundred. The growth of the club continued with its activities until in 1909 with 650 members it ventured on the employment of an executive secretary, who should give all his time to the work of the club, should organize the committees, edit the publications and secure information for both sides in the club's discussions. Since that time the club has doubled in numbers, has begun the collection of a special library on civics with index of all the material available in the leading libraries of the state, and has built up a committee organization that covers the governmental, social and economic problems of California.

Various methods of handling public questions have been tried by the club, but the following has been evolved by experience as the most satisfactory in securing adequate discussion. A subject is selected by the board of governors. If no suitable committee exists the president of the club is authorized to appoint one. In this appointment every effort is made to see that all opinions are represented. The committee is asked to bring together all the material data on the subject, to agree, if possible, on a statement of the facts, with such conclusions as seem just. If the committee does not agree in its conclusions two or more reports will be prepared. If the subject is of more than ordinary complexity a larger number of members are brought together under the name of a section of the club, and the section subdivides the work among several committees. When the committee or section is prepared to report, the governors set aside one of the regular monthly meetings for a hearing. The club meets at dinner at the Hotel St. Francis on the evening of the second Wednesday of each month. Promptness is the ruling order, the members sitting at table at 6 o'clock, the program beginning at 8, and the adjournment had at 10: 15. The committee has usually one hour in which to present its reports. The remainder of the time is given to discussion from the floor, usually under the five-minute rule. Under this system an able committee organization has been built up, for the members who work on a committee are usually those who have been directly connected with the practical work in the line of the investigation, through their daily employments or life studies.

A subsidiary feature of the club's activities is the Saturday luncheon where an address is delivered by some distinguished stranger or competent resident. As the addresses thus delivered give an *ex parte* statement of the views of one speaker, and time does not permit opposing views to be presented, these addresses are rarely published by the club. In fact, one of the rules of the club provides against such publication unless as a part of an investigation by a committee of the club. The exceptions have been Secretary Franklin K. Lane's address of September 5, 1913, dealing with certain features of the question of conservation; the address of John F. Davis on California history; that of T. B. Walker on conservation of the forests; and that of Captain I. N. Hibberd on "Rehabilitation of the Merchant Marine." As these dealt with subjects under investigation by the club, they were published as a part of its records.

The published transactions of the club are thus made up of reports, addresses and discussions covering the activities of many original investigators, checked by the criticism of open discussion. They are for the most part the result of first hand information from men actually engaged in the practical work in the line of activity under discussion, and rely only to a minor degree on recasting the information published by others. They have, therefore, come to be widely sought for as sources of information that cannot be found elsewhere.

The list of transactions published is as follows:

No. VOLUME I

1. Relations of Employer and Employed, November, 1903. pp. 31.
2. Civil Service, January, 1904. pp. 31.
3. Taxation, June, 1904. pp. 14.
4. Reclamation of Swamp Lands, October, 1904. pp. 48.
5. Direct Legislation, January, 1905. pp. 34.
6. Regulation of Water Rights, December, 1905. pp. 101.
7. Progress Report, January, 1905. pp. 11.
8. Penology of California, March, 1905. pp. 22.
9. Relations of Employer and Employed, April, 1905. pp. 30.
10. Hospitals of San Francisco, May, 1905. pp. 32.
11. State Charities of California, June, 1905. pp. 22.
12. Progress Report, October, 1905. pp. 14.
13. Government Regulation of Railroad Freight Rates. November, 1905. pp. 40.

No. VOLUME II

1. The Port of San Francisco, January, 1906. pp. 67.
2. The Tenement House Question. Child Labor in California, October, 1906. pp. 48.
3. Torrens System of Transferring Land Titles, November, 1906. pp. 30.
4. Good Roads, December, 1906. pp. 50.
5. The Direct Primary, January, 1907. pp. 28.
6. Appointment and Tenure of Office of Teachers in California, February, 1907. pp. 31.
7. Water Supply for San Francisco, June, 1907. pp. 109.
8. Fire Protection for San Francisco, September, 1907. pp. 41.
9. Condition and Needs of the University of California, October, 1907. pp. 37.
10. Municipal Ownership, November, 1907. pp. 46.
11. Needs of the National Guard, December, 1907. pp. 42.

No. VOLUME III

1. State Indebtedness, January, 1908. pp. 25.
2. Proposed Educational Amendments to the State Constitution, February, 1908. pp. 45.
3. Proceedings at the Annual Banquet, March, 1908. pp. 20.
4. The Proposed Taxation Amendment to the State Constitution, May, 1908. pp. 100.
5. The Banking Laws of California, June, 1908. pp. 85.
6. Amendments to the State Constitution to be voted on November 3, 1908, August, 1908. pp. 40.
7. The Railroad Commission of California, September, 1908. pp. 72.
8. Regulation of Stock Sales by Proposed Senate Constitutional Amendment No. 34, October, 1908. pp. 36.
9. Reform in Criminal Procedure, December, 1908. pp. 74.

No. VOLUME IV

1. Proceedings at a Banquet in Honor of Dr. James Bryce, March, 1909. pp. 30.
2. Forestry in California, April, 1909. pp. 85.
3. The Question of Ship Subsidies, May, 1909. pp. 30.
4. Some Conditions of Pacific Ocean Commerce, June, 1909. pp. 43.
5. Swamp Land Reclamation, September, 1909. pp. 116.
6. The Hetch Hetchy Water Supply, November, 1909. pp. 100.
7. Indian Rights and Wrongs, December, 1909. pp. 27.
8. Progress Report for 1909, January, 1910. pp. 61.

No. VOLUME V

1. Conservation of the Forest, February, 1910. pp. 14.
2. Labor Problems in California, April, 1910. pp. 150.
3. Rehabilitation of the Merchant Marine, May, 1910. pp. 17.
4. Dependent Children, June, 1910. pp. 68.
5. The Prevention of Tuberculosis, July, 1910. pp. 77.
6. Constitutional Amendments of 1910, September, 1910. pp. 88.
7. India Basin and State Highways, October, 1910. pp. 48.
8. Progress Report for 1910, January, 1911. pp. 53.

No. VOLUME VI

1. The Red Plague, May, 1911. pp. 83.
2. Employers' Liability and Woman's Suffrage, June, 1911. pp. 68.
3. The Recall Amendment, July, 1911. pp. 84.
4. The Railroad Commission Amendments, August, 1911. pp. 44.
5. Direct Legislation, September, 1911. pp. 68.

6. The City Charters Amendments, October, 1911. pp. 55.
7. State Aid to Agriculture, November, 1911. pp. 107.
8. Marketing Irrigation Bonds, December, 1911. pp. 69.
9. Progress Report for 1911, January, 1912. pp. 82.

No. VOLUME VII

1. Control of San Francisco Harbor, March, 1912. pp. 68.
2. Conservation, June, 1912. pp. 246.
3. State Text Books, August, 1912. pp. 60.
4. Home Rule in Taxation, October, 1912. pp. 86.
5. Workmen's Compensation-Employers' Liability, November, 1912. pp. 54.
6. State vs. Local Control of Harbors, December, 1912. pp. 40.
7. Progress Report for 1912, January, 1913. pp. 87.

No. VOLUME VIII

1. Judicial Procedure, February, 1913. pp. 53.
2. The Water and Forest Bills, March, 1913. pp. 48.
3. The Industrial Accidents Bill, April, 1913. pp. 53.
4. Immigration, May, 1913. pp. 25.
5. Public Recreation, June, 1913. pp. 129.
6. Sources of California History, July, 1913. pp. 19.
7. Red Plague—2nd Report, August, 1913. pp. 100.
8. Land Transfers, September, 1913. pp. 45.
9. Smoke Problems of California, September, 1913. pp. 44.
10. Address by Hon. Franklin K. Lane, October, 1913. pp. 9.
11. Internal Waterways, November, 1913. pp. 70.
12. Progress Report for 1913, January, 1914.

No. VOLUME IX

1. Bay Cities' Water Supply, February, 1914. pp. 96.
2. Federal vs. State Control, March, 1914. pp. 62.
3. The High Cost of Living, April, 1914. pp. 70.
4. Taxation Amendments of 1914, May, 1914. pp. 75.
5. Selection of Judges, June, 1914. pp. 66.
6. Powers of Cities, July, 1914. pp. 66.
7. The Eight Hour Law, August, 1914. pp. 51.

Copies of Volume I are very rare, as most of them were in the club office at the time of the great San Francisco conflagration of 1906 and went up in smoke with the destruction of the city. The other volumes may be found in many libraries throughout the United States.

These publications fall into certain main groups: Conservation of natural resources, judicial procedure, taxation, commerce, public health, and charities and corrections covering the main lines of investigation.

CONSERVATION

The inquiry into the conservation of natural resources was begun in the early days of the club with an exhaustive study of "The Regulation of Water Rights in California," and the results were published in Volume I, No. 6, of the transactions issued in December, 1905.

The special case of conservation of forests was taken up and a report published as a part of the transactions, February, 1910. The discussion and publication was of material assistance in the campaign for improved forestry laws in California.

A new angle of the conservation question was taken up at the club meeting held March 25, 1911, when "The Doubtful Zone of Authority between State and Federal Governments" was discussed. A section on conservation was organized with Frank Adams of the United States irrigation investigations office as chairman. The section began its work by bringing together an inventory of the natural resources of California lands, forests, minerals, waters and water powers, and discussed the steps that should be taken to conserve and improve them.

The section was divided into committees and after a year of labor reported to the club at the meetings of March and April, 1912, when the addresses and reports were printed as No. 2 of Volume VII of the transactions (246 pages), the largest number ever issued by the club. The section through its committees then took up with the state conservation Commission the unsettled question of water titles and forest protection and assisted with constructive criticism in drafting the measures reported on in February, 1913, in transactions, Volume VIII, No. 2, under the title "The Water and Forest Bills." The section then came back to the question of the "doubtful zone of authority," and in December, 1913, delivered its report, which was issued with considerable additional data and a discussion of the leading cases, as No. 2 of Volume IX, March, 1914. "*Federal vs. State Control*," the final report covered the control of forests, of mineral lands and of waters, the general conclusions of the section recognizing the authority of the federal government to control with respect to its own lands, but favoring the policy of ultimate state control.

Closely related to the conservation reports are those on swamp land reclamation (Volume I, No. 4, and Volume IV, No. 5).

JUDICIAL PROCEDURE

"The law's delays" is a subject on which the club has spent a good deal of energy. After a number of preliminary considerations of the subject a special section was appointed, with Beverly L. Hodghead as chairman, to consider a number of papers which had been laid before the club, and to make further investigation and to report conclusions in the form of specific recommendations. The section analyzed the various causes of delay of justice under headings, the accusation, the trial jury, the proceedings at the trial, the charge to the jury, and the appeal, and made suggestions for remedies. On the approval of these recommendations by the club meeting of December 9, 1908, the section was authorized to prepare bills to carry out the recommendations and 62 measures for this purpose were laid before the legislature of 1909. The acrimony roused by the San Francisco graft prosecutions that had resulted in the ruin of the administration of Mayor Schmitz, the conviction of Abraham Ruef of bribery of the city legislators, and indictment and trial of several leaders of the financial world, was still a powerful force, and after a warm struggle all the bills were defeated. The subject was again taken up in committee, and a more modest program was laid before the legislature of 1911, seeking to abolish the inquisition into the motives and procedure of the grand jury, and to shorten the procedure on appeal from a judgment. Most important of all was a constitutional amendment providing that no judgment should be reversed or new trial granted for errors of procedure unless on a review of the entire cause the appellate court should be of the opinion that there had been a miscarriage of justice. This amendment was ratified by an overwhelming majority of the voters October, 1911, and under its operation reversals on purely technical grounds have ceased. Decisions have dealt with the material points bearing on the guilt or innocence of the person taking appeal from a conviction.

These measures dealt with the defects of criminal justice. Attention was therefore directed to the subject of delays of civil justice, and reports from committees on civil procedure and on criminal procedure were heard at the club meeting of December, 1912, and published with the discussion, and, in addition, a tabulation of the records of the appellate courts for a series of years analyzing the causes of delay, as Volume VIII, No. 2, transactions of the club, on "Judicial Procedure." With the authority of the club these recommendations were laid before the legislature of 1913, but through various causes they failed to become laws. A most important step was taken at the instance of the club, however, in submitting to the people a constitutional amendment extending to civil cases the rules of decision on appeal established in criminal cases in 1911, as follows:

"No judgment shall be set aside, or new trial granted, in any case, on the ground of misdirection of the jury, or of the improper admission or rejection of evidence, or for any error as to any matter of pleading, or for any error as to any matter of procedure, unless after an examination of the entire cause, including the evidence, the court shall be of the opinion that the error complained of has resulted in a miscarriage of justice."

This amendment was voted on at the election of November, 1914, and will of its own force eliminate most of the causes of delay. The club's committees are continuing their investigations, and will be prepared to recommend to other legislatures further measures, in the long struggle that has come down from the days before Justinian "to make justice more speedy and certain."

Taxation

Questions regarding a correct system of taxation were taken up at an early day in the history of the club. The third number of Volume I of the transactions of the club covers a paper by Professor Carl C. Plehn, advocating the abolition of the general property tax for state purposes, and a report of the discussion that followed. Following this discussion, the legislature of 1905 appointed a commission to consider the subject, which framed a constitutional amendment to abandon the general property tax for state purposes and to raise the state's revenues largely from an income tax on corporations. Several meetings of the club in 1908 were devoted to a consideration of this amendment and the reasons for and against its adoption were discussed in detail. The papers, reports, and discussion were brought together May, 1908, in Volume III, No. 4, of the transactions of the club and furnished the arsenal from which most of the weapons for both sides in the campaign of that year were drawn.

The amendment was rejected by the voters in November, 1908, and with considerable modifications to meet the objections urged in the club's discussions was submitted again by the legislature of 1909. The revised amendment was carefully examined by the club's committee on taxation, discussed at a club meeting, and the results published as a part of Volume V, No. 6, "Constitutional Amendments of 1910." A special session of the legislature still further modified the amendment before the election to meet the criticisms of the Commonwealth club discussion, and the amendment was ratified at the election of November, 1910, and is now the law of the state.

Two more numbers have been issued on the subject of taxation, Volume VII, No. 4, "Home Rule in Taxation," October, 1912, covering reports and discussion on a constitutional amendment to permit local governments to exempt property from taxation; and "Constitutional Amendments in 1914," Volume IX, No. 4, May, 1914, covering six proposed amendments to the state constitution regarding the taxing power of the local governments. The so-called home rule amendment was rejected in the election of 1912 and revised to meet criticisms of detail in the discussion of 1912, and drawn to permit the local governments to exempt from local taxation, by classes, any property except land and franchises, is now before the voters for ratification or rejection. The other five provide for repeal of poll taxes, exemption of property of institutions of collegiate grade, exemption of shipping, subjecting certain public properties to local taxation, and limiting to taxpayers the privilege of voting on bond issues. These measures were analyzed and the facts and arguments for and against their adoption brought together in this publication.

Public Recreation

The growing importance of recreation as a feature of organized social life was recognized by the club in 1912 by the formation of a section on recreation survey. The section divided into committees which first collected the reports of work conducted in other states and then made an intensive study of the recreational facilities of San Francisco as illustrative of the problems of California cities. The results were discussed at a club meeting in May, 1913, and published June, 1913, as No. 5, Volume VIII, of the transactions with the title "Public Recreation." Besides a general survey of conditions through the United States, it presented six committee reports covering a study of the management conditions and effect of the local parks and playgrounds; refreshment places, including saloons, cafés, and settlements; shows, including all types of theaters; motion picture theaters and variety shows; dance halls; and legislation present and proposed. Most of the material was obtained through personal investigation by members of the section.

Public Health

Considerable attention has been paid by the club to matters affecting the health of the community. In 1905 it discussed "The Hospitals of San Francisco" (Transactions, Volume I, No. 10) and in 1910 published its discussions on "The Prevention of Tuberculosis" (Transactions, Volume V, No. 5).

After a good deal of hesitation, the club took up for investigation the subject of prevalence of venereal diseases. Influenced by the advice of medical men that the conspiracy of silence that surrounded the subject was furthering the spread of these diseases, and in spite of the fact that they rarely appeared in the mortality reports they were among the plagues most destructive to mankind, the subject was scheduled for discussion. A committee of physicians was appointed to present the medical aspects of the question with a historic review by a layman, and the reports with the discussion thereon were printed May, 1911, as "The Red Plague". (Transactions, Volume VI, No. 1). The committee was then reorganized to investigate the administrative problem of dealing with the agencies of infection found in prostitution. The committee reported in June, 1913, covering the history and effects of regulation from the medical and moral points of view, and the reports with the discussion that followed, were published in August, 1913, as "The Red Plague"—second report (Transactions, Volume VIII, No. 7). The two reports have been in demand from all parts of the United States as a sane and comprehensive presentation of one of the greatest problems confronting civilized society.

Besides covering the questions described above, the club has published reports and discussion on widely related subjects of government and administration, from agriculture to the cost of living, from tenement house legislation to the Hetch Hetchy water supply, from internal waterways to industrial accidents, from woman suffrage to the problems of direct legislation.

It will be seen that a considerable part of the work of the club is concerned with discussion of propositions laid before the people by the legislature or by petition of electors to be ratified or rejected. This service has grown in importance with the large increase in such direct legislation. This year the voters of California passed on 22 amendments and 4 bonding acts submitted by the legislature, 4 measures passed by the legislature and held up by referendum petitions, 17 measures proposed by petition of the people, and a proposition for a consitutional convention.

The most important of these have been discussed in principle or in detail by committees of the club or covered by discussions of former years. The work that has thus been done has proved of much assistance, not only to the members of the club, but also to the public at large. The published transactions, besides being sent to all members, are found in the libraries and in the offices of the leading newspapers. The information they contain is thus at the service of those who discuss public measures. It is spread in widening circles through all classes in the community and has proved a powerful factor in forming the public opinion that is the cause and force behind all laws and systems of government and society.[1]

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State Control of Public Water Supplies and Stream Sanitation.—During the past 30 years, along with general progress in sanitary matters, there has been a growing appreciation of the necessity of pure public water supplies to protect public health, and a growing demand for clean streams that may be freely used as sources of water supply, for industries and municipalities, for stock watering, for pleasure purposes and other legitimate demands.

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[1] E. A. Walcott, Secretary of the Commonwealth Club of California.

It was soon found that control of these matters could not be entirely entrusted to municipal authorities, and it became necessary to establish some central authority for the purpose of exercising general supervision over them. The justification for such central authority is due to the fact that the condition of a public water supply or the pollution of streams and waterways are not matters of purely local concern. A public water supply that is polluted not only endangers the health of those living in the community which is served by the polluted water supply, but it also endangers the life and health of visitors from other communities and the rural districts, so that a polluted water supply becomes a focus of infection throughout a wide area. A typical case in point is Niagara Falls, which, prior to the installation of water purification works in 1910, distributed an untold number of cases of typhoid fever and possibly other water-borne diseases throughout the entire United States and Canada, and undoubtedly to some extent abroad.

The matter of stream sanitation is still less satisfactorily controlled by municipal authorities because of the fact that the municipality which foots the bills for the purification of its sewage receives no, or little, direct benefit. The benefit extends primarily to riparian owners in a downstream direction.

There has always existed means of redress against offending communities that have polluted water supplies or which unduly pollute water courses through the common law. Persons who can prove that illness or death resulted from a polluted public water supply may secure an injunction against further use of such supply, or may obtain an award of damages. Riparian owners whose property is injuriously affected by the undue contamination of streams may likewise secure an injunction against the further discharge of sewage into the stream or may secure an award of damages. This method of control, however, has proved unsatisfactory, inasmuch as it involves long drawn out, uncertain and costly litigation and it often proves impracticable for the individuals who are injuriously affected to raise the necessary funds for the employment of legal advice and the prosecution of court proceedings against the much larger resources of a municipality.

Massachusetts was the first commonwealth in this country which undertook systematically through its state board of health to control the purity of public water supplies and the pollution of waterways. Laws passed in 1888 instructed the state board of health to advise cities, towns and corporations with reference to water supply and sewage and wastes disposal. Sufficient appropriations were given to the board to enable it to study the problems of that state through investigation and through experimental and research work. The nominally advisory powers of the state board of health were made virtually mandatory by requiring that all petitions to the legislature for authority to install water supplies and sewerage systems must be accompanied by a report from the state board of health.

Perhaps the next advance was made by the state board of health of Ohio, which in 1892 had a clause inserted in its enabling act providing that no public water supply or water purification plant or sewerage system or sewerage purification plant could be installed until plans for the same had been approved by the state board of health. The insertion of this clause was inspired by the then recent disastrous epidemic of water-borne cholera in Hamburg, Germany. Owing to lack of appropriations, this branch of the state board of health's work was carried out in a more or less perfunctory manner, but beginning in 1897 the services of sanitary engineers were employed and ever since, supervision over public water supplies and sewage disposal has constituted a very important branch of the board's work.

In 1908, a law was enacted in Ohio known as the Bense act which has placed Ohio well in the forefront with respect to the control of public water supplies and stream pollution, so far as legislation is concerned. This act provides that when complaint is made by local authorities or a specified number of electors against a community or corporation which has an impure water supply or which is polluting a stream, the state board of health must make an investigation. If upon investigation, it finds that conditions are as stated in the complaint, then it must serve notice upon offending parties to appear at a hearing before the board to show reason why they should not be ordered to abate the objectionable conditions. If, after such a hearing, the board is still convinced that corrective measures are necessary, it may issue an order against the constituted authorities demanding an abatement of the objectionable conditions, which order becomes effective when it has received the signatures of the governor and the attorney general. The law provides a further safeguard against the arbitrary action by providing that if after the issuance of the order, the community or other parties affected do not believe the order to be just, they may demand that the matter be referred to a commission of sanitary engineers, one to be appointed by the state board of health, one, to be appointed by the parties against whom the order is issued and in a case of disagreement between these two a third member is to be appointed by the two already appointed. The law states that the decision of this commission is final. Compliance with the orders of the board is insured by a clause which imposes a fine or imprisonment upon any responsible official or corporation officer who fails to perform his share in meeting the board's requirements. The constitutionality of this law has been upheld by the supreme court of the state.

In 1905 Pennsylvania came to the forefront in sanitary matters by reorganizing its health department and remodelling its health laws. The revised laws place the health activities of the state under the supervision of a single commissioner of health and with respect to water supply and stream pollution, provide that no public water supply or no sewerage system nor any extension of water mains or sewer pipes may be installed until plans for such improvements have been approved by the health commissioner. By including extensions of water pipes and sewer pipes, the state board of health soon had to consider practically every public water supply and sewerage system in the state, for the reason that extensions are being constantly made to such utilities. The Pennsylvania laws were made effective by large appropriations, much larger in fact than any state health department had hitherto received.

During the decade from 1900 to 1910 many state boards of health became more or less active in matters relating to public water supply and stream pollution. Among the most progressive in these matters may be mentioned the state boards of health of New York, New Jersey, Minnesota, Virginia, Maryland, Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, Louisiana and California. All of these states exercise more or less supervision over public water supplies and are given more or less mandatory power.

The most drastic legislation yet attempted governing public water supplies and sewage disposal was recently passed in Maryland. This legislation comprises all the essentials of the Ohio laws and has in addition a great many detailed provisions regarding the development of urban residential sub-divisions with reference to water supply and sewerage, the use of cesspools and privy vaults and methods of submitting plans and specifications. If all of the activities prescribed in the act are fully carried out, very much larger appropriations than are now available will be required.

Illinois occupies a rather unique situation with reference to the control of public water supplies and stream pollution. The state health laws do not give the state board of health specific authority over such matters and as there was a growing need for some central advisory body with reference to the sources of water supply, the state water survey was established at the University of Illinois in 1897. This survey began merely as a water laboratory of moderate size in which chemical analyses of water were made on samples shipped in to the laboratory. In 1911, the legislature imposed new and additional duties upon the state water survey which provided for the field examination of water supplies and of watersheds. A sufficient appropriation was made available to establish an engineering department so that since the latter part of 1911 the survey has been carrying on activities similar to those which are conducted by the more progressive state boards of health, but it has been able to exercise its influence only through advisory methods.

The state control over stream sanitation in Illinois was greatly strengthened by a working agreement made between the state water survey and the rivers and lakes commission in the early part of 1914. The rivers and lakes commission was created in 1911 and in its enabling act is contained a clause which gives the commission authority to command the abatement of the pollution of streams, but with no specific authority for enforcing its demands other than that it may request the attorney general to enjoin municipalities, corporations and persons responsible for failure to carry out the commands of the commission. During the first years of the commission's existence, this clause was practically a dead letter, owing to lack of appropriations. As a result of the working agreement between the state water survey and the rivers and lakes commission, above referred to, the state water survey investigates all cases of alleged stream pollution and reports to the rivers and lakes commission. The latter uses its legal authority to summon witnesses to appear at hearings and to command abatements.

By way of summary it may be stated that there is no uniformity in the practices of the several states with reference to central state control over public water supplies and stream sanitation, other perhaps than that authority in all cases, except in Illinois, is vested in state boards of health. It would probably be impracticable for all of the states to adopt uniform laws inasmuch as local conditions materially affect local requirements. Much benefit can no doubt be derived by a study of the legal side of the question with a view to securing greater harmony of practice than now exists and also for the purpose of securing a more rational control over interstate waters. The United States public health service is at the present time collecting all state laws relating to public water supply and stream pollution as well as other health matters and this work will form the basis of a comprehensive report to be issued at a later date.[1]

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Taxation.—*Indiana.* In 1891 Indiana established a state board of tax commissioners to which was given more extensive powers of supervision and original assessment than any administrative body had theretofore possessed, in any state. Since then the commission has become a familiar feature of tax administration and many of these bodies have achieved notable results in tax reform. For numerous reasons, however, the Indiana commission has fallen far short of the ideals of its founders, though until recently there has been little evidence that the board realized the true state of affairs. In 1912, for the first time in its history, the board ventured upon criticism of the Indiana tax system, and in 1914 its members participated in a state conference on taxation, the keynote of which was dissatisfaction with taxation in Indiana.[2] At this conference, conducted under the auspices of the state university, a former member of the state board criticised the assessment of moneys and credits, a member of the present board demonstrated serious inequalities in the assessment of tangible personal property, and the state legislative librarian argued strongly for a special tax commission for the purpose of making a thorough study of the whole situation. The unanimity of opinion at the conference did not extend, however, beyond dissatisfaction with the existing system. Classification was advocated by several speakers, and the favorable results of the Minnesota three-mill tax on moneys and credits were briefly described. Others preferred to leave the framework of the tax law substantially unchanged, and strengthen the board of tax commissioners. The Wisconsin system of central supervision was discussed by Professor Adams, who told how Wisconsin had reconciled the opposing tendencies of local self-government and centralization for efficiency by the local election of assessors, and the central authority to appoint a county supervisor and to order reassessments. On the other hand, in a discussion of the well-known difficulties which the Michigan board of tax commissioners has encountered in its efforts to secure full valuation, Professor Friday declared that in Michigan the power of review without direct control of the local assessors, through appointment or otherwise, was inadequate to secure uniform assessments.

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[1] Paul Hansen, Illinois State Water Survey.

[2] Proceedings of a Conference on Taxation in Indiana, Bloomington, Indiana, February 5–6, 1914. 189 pp.

The distinctly educational character of the conference rendered any attempt at formal resolutions unwise, but the members of this preliminary conference arranged for a permanent state tax association for the purpose of co-operating with other agencies in securing needed legislation. Professor W. A. Rawles was elected president of the association.

New York. The report of the committee on taxation of the conference of the mayor and other city officials of New York state discussed the replies to a questionnaire which had been sent to the assessors of the 51 cities of the state. Of this number, the assessors in 46 cities sent replies. The questions dealt entirely with the assessment of real and personal property, and the replies revealed striking differences in equipment and methods. In only 20 cities did the assessors use tax maps, though a field book of some sort was used in 43 cities. Twenty-seven places used a unit system in assessing lots, but in only six cities was a record kept of the sizes of buildings. Thirty-two cities used an alphabetical roll, and six a geographical roll. Of the 71 questions, 23 related to personalty assessments but the replies were so incomplete as to furnish no basis for conclusions. The chaotic replies to this section of the questionnaire are suggestive of the condition of personal property assessments.

The committee approved the resolution adopted at the first New York state conference, on taxation, held at Utica in 1911, recommending that the assessor be given authority to require a statement of the true consideration before any deed, mortgage or lease could be recorded. It found appointment of assessors in fifteen cities, and recommended the appointment of all assessors, to hold office during good behavior, but this suggestion was ignored in the list of recommendations adopted by the conference.

Washington. The state tax conference held in Seattle on May 27–29, 1914, was the second recent meeting of this sort conducted as a purely educational venture under the auspices of a state university. The program of the Washington conference was more extensive than that of the Indiana conference, and permitted therefore more complete discussion of the tax problems of the state.[1] Judging from the papers presented, there is abroad in Washington a more general interest in tax reform than is in evidence in Indiana, an interest which has doubtless been provoked in part by the activities of the single taxers.

The papers on the taxation of natural resources revealed the fact that timber lands were being excessively taxed, while other valuable resources such as the fisheries and the shore and tide lands were escaping with only a nominal burden. In the discussion of the taxation of corporations, Professor Plehn's significant admissions as to the crude assumptions and rough approximations necessary in the administration of the new California corporation tax appeared to reflect seriously upon the qualifications of that tax. As administered, it has apparently been neither simple nor certain in its operation, and for this reason Professor Adams advocated in preference the Wisconsin system of a tax on the tangible property supplemented by an income tax. Professor Bullock punctured the hopes of those who were advocating a corporate excess tax by characterizing the Massachusetts corporation tax as the most unequal and absurd that could well be devised.

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[1] Taxation in Washington—Papers and Discussions of the State Tax Conference at the University of Washington, May 27, 28 and 29, 1914. pp. 302.

The most interesting, and in many ways the most significant part of the program was that dealing with methods of tax reform, and especially the papers of Professors Adams and Bullock. The former dealt with the educational aspect of tax administration, which was advanced as the absolutely fundamental condition for securing and holding gains of any other sort. The latter discussed several recent proposals, including separation of the sources of revenue, centralized administration, classification of property and the income tax. Complete separation of the sources of state and local revenue was condemned, though some degree of separation was admitted to be advantageous. It should not, however, extend so far as the complete remission of the direct state tax. Central administration was pronounced to be highly essential, but even a state tax commission could not enforce an obsolete and unworkable law. The income tax was held to be better than classification for mercantile and industrial states, while for those states which were predominantly rural, or which were unwilling to revolutionize their administrative machinery, classification would be more desirable.

No resolutions were proposed, and no attempt was made to effect a permanent state organization.[1]

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Chicago and Its Street Railways.—In 1907 Chicago granted "settlement" ordinances to its principal street railway companies. These grants, which were to run until 1927, provided for a virtual partnership between the city and the companies in the management and profits of the traction properties. The city was to receive 55 per cent of the net receipts above a 5 per cent return to capital, the properties were to be reconstructed and operated under the general supervision of a board of supervising engineers, containing a representative of the companies, a representative of the city, and a representative of the general public.

The fifth annual report of the board of supervising engineers has just been issued, covering the fiscal year ending January 31, 1912.[2] It throws much light upon the operation of this unique partnership arrangement and method of control. The volume reports the completion of the "immediate rehabilitation periods," that is, the periods of immediate reconstruction and re-equipment, as provided for in the 1907 ordinances, and the transition to the period of normal operation. A review of the progress of the rehabilitation of the lines, as carried on under the direction of the board since 1907, indicates that the companies have more than met the requirements of the ordinances. About 560 miles of track have been built new or rebuilt. The rehabilitated tracks have greatly reduced the noise of operation, and with the special type of rail originated by the board, have largely eliminated the jolting and bumping of passengers. Hundreds of cars splendidly equipped with long platforms, commodious seats, motor-driven ventilating systems, thermostat heat regulators, etc., have been added. New power plants have been constructed and the car speed has been materially increased. During the year the board approved the expenditure of $8,866,566.87 for construction and rehabilitation work.

It is apparent from the board's report that the rehabilitation of the street railway properties of Chicago, since 1907, has been a genuine one. It is claimed by engineering experts that no city has seen such a remarkable transformation in the character of the street railway properties in so short a time, and that there is no street railway system whose physical properties can compare with those of Chicago. B. J. Arnold, chairman of the board says: "The physical condition of the traction properties of Chicago is now at its maximum, and unquestionably is above that of any other city in the United States." Approximately $85,000,000 has been spent in the reconstruction of the street railway properties since 1907. Probably not in the history of the world has such a great sum of money been spent in the re-equipment of a local street railway system in a similar period of time. Naturally, it has not been difficult to secure capital for these purposes, since all such investments are added to the plant valuation, upon which the companies are entitled to a 5 per cent return before any division of profits with the city, and are also added to the purchase price which the city must pay for the properties if it should exercise its right of municipal purchase, or which its assignee must pay in case the city should desire to transfer the franchises to other parties. These provisions for protecting all capital invested are so complete that the board has not been hampered by financial considerations in its efforts to establish the highest standards of equipment.

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[1] From H. L. Lutz, Oberlin College.

[2] Fifth annual report of the Board of Supervising Engineers, Chicago Traction, 1914.

The amount obtained by the city as its share of net receipts for the year was $1,870,908. The total amount received by the city to January 1, 1914, was approximately $13,000,000. All the construction accounting and expenditures of the companies are supervised and audited by the board. One of the arguments urged against the adoption of the ordinances of 1907 was that there was no assurance of any income to the city from the proposed division of net receipts, and that a stipulated percentage of gross receipts should be guaranteed to the city. Certainly those who felt that the companies would succeed in so juggling their accounts as to deprive the city of the income due it must have had their fears set at rest. Chicago is unquestionably receiving the largest compensation for its street railway privileges of any American city.

The report indicates that the city's share of net receipts represents a tax of about 2 mills per passenger. The city may at any time commute its share of net receipts into a lower rate of fare. Therefore, if the city would surrender its share of net receipts, passenger tickets could probably be sold at the rate of 20 for 95 or 96 cents. This privilege the city has never seen fit to exercise. The moneys accumulated from this source cannot be used for general city purposes, but are reserved in a special fund for the future purchase of the street railway properties by the city.

The board has been criticised by some of the city officials as being an unduly expensive organization. But this report indicates that the total engineering and supervision expenses of the board have amounted to about $235,000 per year,—a total of $1,176,178. This is 1.64 per cent of the total amount spent in the re-equipment of the properties. A reliable engineering firm would no doubt refuse to consider less than 3 to 5 per cent of construction cost, for planning and supervising an enterprise of such magnitude. It should further be explained that this amount includes not only engineering and supervising expenses, but also the supervision of all construction accounting and the auditing of expenditures made by the companies.[1]

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Publications of the National Electric Light Association.—One of the important contributions to the literature of public service regulation is the weekly magazine or leaflet entitled *Rate Research*, published by the rate research committee of the National electric light association, and edited by William J. Norton, formerly assistant secretary of the public service commission for the first district, New York. *Rate Research* gives a summary of court and commission decisions bearing upon the regulation of public utility rates with especial reference to the electrical industries. The magazine also gives synopses of pamphlets, books, reports and articles bearing upon this subject. The terms of subscription for this magazine are $10 a year for one copy or $25 a year for three copies to one address. It is issued from the headquarters of the rate research committee, 120 West Adams Street, Chicago.

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[1] Ralph E. Heilman, University of Illinois, Urbana.

The thirty-seventh annual convention of the National electric light association was held in Philadelphia from June 1 to 5, 1914. At this meeting important reports, since published in pamphlet form, were presented by the committee on progress, the rate research committee, the hydro-electric section, and the public policy committee. Of these reports the only one that requires especial attention here is the last. The public policy committee, of which Arthur Williams of the New York Edison company is chairman, takes strong ground in favor of regulation by public service commissions, and still stronger ground against public ownership and operation of electrical utilities.

"Your committee," says the report, "is gratified that so little conflict exists between its own views and those generally recorded by the various public service commissions. We have held consistently that the business of supplying electrical energy from large central stations is essentially a monopoly in the best meaning of the word. If a monopoly, privately owned and operated, but occupying public property to render a public service, it must be regulated by some public authority. Any effort to establish and continue an unregulated monopoly would not be in accord with the trend of public opinion."

It is evident that the committee's advocacy of public regulation is based largely upon the expectation that by means of regulation electrical utilities will be protected from competition. The report contains a warning, however, in the shape of a quotation from a recent decision of the California railroad commission to the effect that a public utility monopoly cannot expect the public protection unless as a matter of fact it gives its patrons a liberal share of the advantages, in rates and service, which may legitimately be expected as a result of the economies of monopoly.

The report lays particular stress upon the economic advantages of diversified service from each central station. This point is so significant of the developing tendencies of the central station business as to justify a more extensive quotation from the report.

"One of the purposes in maintaining a regulated monopoly in the electrical industry," says the committee, "is to secure to the public and to the corporation the inherent advantages of generating and distributing electric current on a large scale to widely diversified classes and conditions of service. The larger the scale and the wider the diversity, the greater the obtainable economies. Some of these economies depend not upon size, however great, but upon a diversity of service, and this can be obtained only where a wide variety of service can be collectively served. An example of the thought we seek to convey here is found, say, in the manufacture of ice, the charging of automobiles, or the operation of street railways; however great the aggregate of the service of any one of these classes, mere magnitude of operation cannot possibly obtain the economies which would result from their combination at a single point of generation where their natural diversity factors can be utilized to the improvement of operating economies and the better utilization of invested capital. Ice making reaches a maximum in the summer and a minimum in the winter; the charging of automobiles reaches a maximum after, and not during, the business day; the passenger on a street car line is not using his electric light at his desk or in his store, nor motive power in his shop when riding in a trolley or suburban train. Here we have three elementary illustrations which, generally speaking, show a possible utilization of capital and an improvement in operating conditions obtainable through co-operative operation, but never through segregated operation."

The committee refers to the municipal ownership movement now being fostered in the District of Columbia as "one of most serious political and economic importance." It adds that "obviously it would be no more possible for private capital and employment to compete with the unlimited resources of the national government in transportation or the manufacture and sale of gas and electricity, than it would be for private effort to compete with the resources of the government in the manufacture and sale of clothing or of food or any of life's necessities, the availability of which is of far greater human importance." The members of the National electric light association are urged "to get in touch with their representatives in congress and present to them the serious political and economic consequences that are bound to follow an undertaking of this nature, so essentially private in its character."

The committee refers to the new Cleveland electric light plant, which is pledged to sell current at a maximum price of three cents a kilowatt hour, and states that "if this price prevails a very large percentage of the service will be supplied at a serious loss." Curiously enough, it is the judgment of the committee that "with fair public regulation, municipal operation is bound to fail."

One of the appendices of this report is entitled "Some Important Decisions of the Past Year." This appendix was prepared by Beardsley, Hemmens and Taylor, counsel for the New York Edison company. It is perhaps characteristic of summaries of court decisions prepared by lawyers interested in spreading abroad an interpretation of the law favorable to their clients that these gentlemen, in referring to the Kings County lighting company case, recently decided by the court of appeals of the state of New York, state that this court disagreed with the supreme court of the United States in the matter of the allowance of paving over mains in a rate case. The decision of the United States supreme court in the consolidated gas case is specifically cited as having decided that paving over mains should be allowed. Any careful student of rate decisions knows that the overwhelming preponderance of court and commission decisions is in line with the doctrine laid down by the New York court and that the United States supreme court did not pass upon this question in the consolidated gas case. It merely used certain general language to the effect that the present value of the public utility property was the value to be taken into consideration in a rate case. In point of fact, it reversed the decision of the lower court in which paving over mains had been specifically allowed. This citation only confirms the opinion of the writer, derived from previous experience, that the assertions of eminent counsel for public service corporations as to the meaning of judicial decisions, no matter how glibly cited nor how positively interpreted, should always be "taken with a grain of salt." No one representing the public point of view should be frightened or influenced by them in the slightest degree until they have been carefully verified.[1]

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Manual of Accounting, Reporting, and Business Procedure of the City of Philadelphia.—Controller John M. Walton, of Philadelphia, has recently issued a "Manual of Accounting, Reporting, and Business Procedure." This publication marks the completion of the first step in a systematic program of reorganization upon which Controller Walton has been working for four years with the co-operation of the Philadelphia Bureau of Municipal Research. In the words of the preface, the purpose of the manual is "to prescribe a comprehensive and orderly method of accounting and reporting for the city and county of Philadelphia. It is designed to furnish, with respect to municipal business, the information regarded by bankers and business men as absolutely essential in the administration of private business."

This statement reflects the new note in municipal administration. Heretofore municipal accounting has been designed apparently for the sole purpose of keeping public officers out of jail. This very worthy purpose could be accomplished by a system of memorandum cash accounts which registered the flow of cash into and out of the treasury. The idea of exhibiting for purposes of intelligent administration all of the pertinent facts regarding the financial status, operative results, and condition of funds, until recently, has been foreign to accounting practice in American cities, and, for that matter, in state and federal governments as well. The application of modern accounting methods to municipal management is a recognition of the principle that intelligent direction of public as well as of private business requires that all essential facts be correctly, systematically, and promptly brought to the attention of the responsible officers, and of the public whose support is essential to the success of municipal management.

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[1] Delos F. Wilcox, New York City.

The accounting procedure described in this manual provides for the detail and summary exhibition of three fundamental groups of financial data:

1. The proprietary relations—that is, the assets, liabilities, and reserves, and the net current assets as well as net investment of the city.
2. The operating results—that is, the revenues accrued, expenses incurred, and the excess of the one over the other.
3. The funding relations—that is, the authorizations to incur liabilities and spend money and the character and condition of the funded resources available for meeting them.

The accounting devices for accomplishing this threefold purpose are standardized in accordance with the best modern practice and are systematically described under six main headings:

1. *Documents* containing the original and permanent evidence of each transaction.
2. *Registers and schedules* for each class of documents; serving as numerical indices to the original files as well as secondary records of the facts contained in the original documents.
3. *Detail ledgers* for analyzing and classifying each general class of accounts.
4. *A general ledger* to which, through a general journal, totals from the registers are periodically posted; thus providing accounts which control the accuracy of detail ledger accounts and summary reports.
5. *Detail reports* containing schedules of balances and totals from detail ledgers to be transmitted to department heads and the central accounting office.
6. *Summary reports* in the form of balance sheets and operation accounts to be regularly drawn from the general ledger.

Standard general journal entries are included, with specific directions to accounting officers regarding their application to the problems of departmental accounting, and a standard expense classification for the use of all departments in the operation of their expense accounting.

On the whole, this manual is the most succinct and illuminating guide to municipal accounting procedure that has yet appeared in this country. It is based, to a considerable extent, upon the more voluminous accounting manual published four years ago by Controller Metz of New York; but the later manual more nearly than the first meets the accounting problems which the ordinary American municipality is now attempting to solve. It is regrettable that the accounting forms, the use of which is described in the manual, are not included in the manual itself and that those forms, previously published as a pamphlet, are no longer available for distribution.

Controller Walton and those who have co-operated with him in the preparation of this little volume have made a notable contribution to the widespread movement for the application of business methods in public business.[1]

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Sewage Disposal for Texas Cities.—Under date of October 1, 1914, the University of Texas has issued through its Bureau of municipal research and reference, Bulletin No. 362, entitled "Methods of Sewage Disposal for Texas Cities," which will be of great value not alone to cities of that great state, but to all American cities having before them problems of sewage disposal. The bulletin is edited by Robert M. Jameson, the secretary of the bureau, who gives as one of the especial reasons for its publication at this time, the fact that the legislature of Texas, at its last session, passed an act prohibiting the pollution of streams by sewage or other matter within the limits of any municipality. That new law has made necessary the immediate changing of the methods of sewage disposal by a large number of Texas cities, and the bulletin of the University of Texas answers, for them, an important and immediate need. Mr. Jameson had the co-operation of

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[1] Jesse D. Burks, Efficiency Department of Los Angeles.

Dr. Herman G. James, director of the Bureau of municipal research and reference, with criticism and advice. In an editorial introduction, Dr. James states that the "purpose of the bulletin has been not to treat the subject so technically as to be comprehensible only by city engineers, but in as popular and simple a way as the subject permits, in order that the intelligent laymen of the cities, who are to act under the law, may have some notion of the use to which the money will be put which they will have to vote for the building of sewage disposal plants."

The outline of the bulletin is in two parts: first, methods, and, second, descriptive analyses of plants. The opening chapter relates to broad irrigation, giving a brief history of the use that has been made of sewage disposal for the cultivation of arid lands, and cites Paris sewage farms and also those of Berlin. Chapters descriptive of other methods of sewage disposal are entitled "Sprinkling Filters," "Contact Filters," "Intermittent Sand Filtration," and "Plain Sedimentation." Part II gives important information as to the operation of various plants in Birmingham, England; Hamburg, Germany; Baltimore, Maryland; Worcester, Massachusetts; Columbus, Ohio; and Plainfield, New Jersey. As an appendix to the bulletin there is a bibliography, citing texts and treatises that have been consulted in its preparation. The Texas law on the subject of sewage and sewage disposal is also given in full.[1]

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The College and the City.—*A Series of Addresses Delivered at the National Conference on Universities and Public Service.* The above is the title of a pamphlet publication made possible through the generosity of Walter Stern of Milwaukee, Wisconsin. The addresses were delivered at one of the sessions of the National conference mentioned above. The conference was called by Mayor Mitchel of New York City, and was held under the auspices of the committee on practical training for public service of the American Political Science Association. The addresses are extremely interesting and suggestive of the relations which should exist between the college and the community in which it is located. Special attention was directed to institutions such as the College of the City of New York, the University of Cincinnati and similar municipal institutions. The purpose as expressed by Mayor Mitchel was to devise some means for giving students a practical knowledge of government and for securing to the city a trained public service. The addresses covered such topics as "Democracy and a Trained Public Service." "An Ideal Municipal University," "New York as a Political Science Laboratory," "New York as a Sociological Laboratory," "The Opportunity of the College of the City of New York," "What a College of Administration might do for New York," "The College of the City of New York and Community Service," "The Interrelation of Theory and Practice." The following resolution was adopted:

"Be it resolved by this conference on universities and public service that the municipal colleges of New York be requested to plan an adequate demonstration over a period of years of the community service of a municipally supported institution in governmental administration and in promoting the general social welfare."

In an appendix there is offered by the committee on practical training for public service a proposed plan for a training school for public service in connection with any university. The basis and opportunity for training, the method of training, the organization of the school, the giving of degrees and diplomas, granting of fellowships, appointment of docents, the research opportunities for professors, and tentative regulations for the Ph.D. degree are each in turn given careful attention.

The volume should have wide circulation. The plan proposed by the committee will appeal to many who are interested in government and administration from a practical standpoint and merits the consideration of those educators who view with misgivings the present tendency of education to substitute laboratory work for academic work. The effort of the committee is eminently conservative and has evidently been to unite scholarship and practice. The influence of the proposals in the future development of municipal and state institutions of learning cannot be seriously doubted.[1]

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[1] Richard B. Watrous, American Civic Association, Washington, D. C.

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The Springfield Survey.—Under the direction of the department of surveys and exhibits of the Russell Sage Foundation, and on the initiative of a committee of local citizens, aided by the city government and the school board, a comprehensive study has been made of the city of Springfield, Illinois. This is a city of 50,000 population; and this survey serves for cities of this size something of the same purpose as the Pittsburgh survey for larger cities.

A series of nine reports have been prepared, as follows:—

The Schools of Springfield, Illinois, by Leonard P. Ayres, Ph.D.;

Recreation in Springfield, Illinois, by Lee F. Hanmer and Clarence A. Perry;

Housing in Springfield, Illinois, by John Ihlder;

The Charities of Springfield, Illinois, by Francis H. McLean;

Industrial Conditions in Springfield, Illinois, by Louise C. Odencrantz and Zenas L. Potter;

City and County Administration in Springfield, Illinois, by D. O. Decker;

Public Health in Springfield, Illinois, by Franz Schneider, Jr.;

The Correctional System of Springfield, Illinois, by Zenas L. Potter;

Care of Mental Defectives, the Insane and Alcoholics in Springfield, Illinois, by Walter L. Treadway, M. D.

At this writing the first three of these reports have been published; and the others are to appear shortly. Like the survey reports of other cities prepared under the Russell Sage Foundation, they present a detailed study of present conditions, well illustrated, with a program of recommendations for the improvement of social and living conditions.

In connection with the survey a public exhibition was held in the state arsenal at Springfield, from November 23 to December 2, 1914, at which illustrations of the survey were presented. By this means the results of this study have been brought home to many of the residents of the city of all classes, as well as visitors from other cities.

J. A. F.

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Preliminary Draft of a Bill Consolidating the Existing General Laws Relating to Boroughs in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.—By direction of the Pennsylvania general assembly of 1913 the legislative reference bureau of that state is authorized to prepare compilations by topics of the existing general statutes of the state, and further to prepare codes of the existing laws of the state. Acting under this authority the bureau has issued a preliminary compilation and consolidation of the general laws of the state relating to boroughs. It is proposed to carry the work further than is done in the above work and codify this material in time for the next general assembly pursuant to directions. The above, however, represents substantially all the material that will appear in the code. It is announced that changes in the existing law have been made only where necessary to the clearness and harmony of the compilation.

The work is a most commendable one and should be of immense value to the boroughs of the state, especially if the legislature should adopt some such code as is proposed. It will relieve a condition in which there has been no little confusion. The whole effort bears ample testimony to the value and usefulness of the legislative reference bureau, an institution of the advantages of which some states seem slow to avail themselves. One hopes that this very creditable piece of work on the part of the Pennsylvania bureau will not have been performed in vain.

R. M. S.

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[1] Russell M. Story, University of Illinois.

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Philadelphia, Pa. Budget statement of the school controller—Philadelphia—for 1915. 31 pp.

The second annual statement made by the school controller.

——. Bureau of Municipal Research. Citizens' business. Bulletin, no. 129. November 12, 1914. City of Philadelphia, budget story no. 2. 2 leaves. 16°.

United States. Library of Congress. Division of bibliography. List of references on the budgets of cities. Dated June 22, 1914. 12 typewritten folios.

Building Construction

City Club of Berkeley. The building code. A résumé of the proposed code drafted by the city code committee together with a statement of its application to Berkeley conditions. (Civic Bulletin, v. 3, no. 4. November 14, 1914. pp. 53–67.)

Davidson (F. E.). Proposed State Building Code. Paper read at the state convention of the Illinois Society of Architects. (Construction News, October 31, 1914. 5,000 words.)

Massachusetts. District Police Office. Form H. Elevator and escalator regulations framed by the board of elevator regulations approved by the governor and council, May 20, 1914, taking effect June 19, 1914. 1914. 131 pp. 16°.

—— ——. Form G. Regulations relating to the erection, alteration and inspection of churches, enforced by the building inspection department. 1914. 15 pp. 16°.

New York State. Industrial Board. Proposed rules and regulations relating to the construction, grading, equipment, maintenance and operation of elevators and hoistways. Public hearings, July 7–13, 1914. 11 pp.

Charters

Matthews (Nathan). Municipal charters; a discussion of the essentials of a city charter with forms or models for adoption. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1914. vii, 210 pp.

Portland, O. The charter of the city of Portland, Oregon. In effect July 1, 1913. As revised by the council August 19, 1914. 156 pp.

Toledo, O. Proposed charter for the city of Toledo. Prepared and proposed by the charter commission. Election day, Tuesday, November 3, 1914. 71 (9) pp.

City Planning

Massachusetts. Homestead Commission. Bulletin 2. November, 1914. 12 pp.

No. 2. Information and suggestions for town planning boards.

This bulletin is also printed in the first annual report of the commission noted elsewhere under the heading Housing.

Pratt (Edward Ewing). A visit to Ulm, just prior to the war. (American City. September, 1914. pp. 191–193.)

Municipal land, housing and town planning policies.

Commission Government

Fuller (A. M.). Six months under the new form of government. An address before the League of Cities of the Third Class at the fifteenth annual meeting of the league held at Meadville, August 25–27, 1914. 2 leaves.

Based on statements in reply to a questionnaire sent to 19 banks and 20 individuals in the 28 third class cities of Pennsylvania.

Rinkliff (George L.). Sandusky's Commission-manager government. (Municipal Journal, October 29, 1914. 1,500 words.)

Methods of governing public utilities, initiative, referendum and recall.

Courts

Chicago Public Library. Municipal Reference Library. Bulletin 4. November, 1914. 16 pp.

No. 4. The payment of fines in installments by offenders. November, 1914.

Kales (Albert M.). Proposed amendments to the Chicago municipal court act relating to the selection and retirement of the judges of that court. July, 1914. 31 pp.

New York State. Probation Commission. Annual report, July 7, 1912–13. Issued 1914.

Contains report of an inspection of the Buffalo children's court.

Wood (Walton J.). The office of public defender; letters from Walton J. Wood, public defender, to bar associations of New York and Milwaukee; comments of the district attorney, judges and the press of Los Angeles; Los Angeles county charter provisions. Los Angeles, June, 1914. Np.

Crime and Criminals

Chicago, Ill. Crime committee. Statistics relating to crime in Chicago prepared by Miss Edith A. Abbott for the Chicago city council committee appointed to investigate crime, September, 1914. vi, 48 pp., tables. Typewritten.

Not seen. Title supplied by Chicago Municipal Reference Library.

Electoral Reform

American Proportional Representation League. Leaflet.

No. 1. November, 1914. Efficiency and democracy in city government. Folder. Price to one address 10 cents per dozen, 60 cents per hundred.

Municipal League of Los Angeles. Municipal League Bulletin. September, 1914. 12 p.

Contains a statement by George H. Dunlop on city and county consolidation, and the text of the address by Professor John R. Commons before the Municipal League, September 15, 1914, on proportional representation.

Proportional Representation Review. Organ of the American Proportional Representation League. Quarterly. October, 1914. ser. 3, no. 32.

Annual subscription 20 cents. Address A. P. R. League, Haverford, Pennsylvania. With this issue the Review will continue to appear separately instead of as a part of "Equity."

Short Ballot Bulletin (The). Bimonthly, v. 3, no. 11. October, 1914. 8 p.

On page 7 is a list of short ballot cities corrected up to November 3, 1914, in all 346 cities with a total population of 8,312,176.

Excess Condemnation

How New York City Converts Private Property to Public Use. December, 1914. (Real Estate Bulletin, v. 2, no. 4. pp. 17–23.)

Address: Real Estate Board, New York City. Subscription $1.50 a year, 15 cents a copy.

"The Committee on City Plan of the Boston Chamber of Commerce applied recently to the Real Estate Board for information as to the procedure in New York. In order to get the information at first hand, the Boston Chamber's questions were submitted to Mr. Joel J. Squier, assistant corporation counsel of the Bureau of Street openings of New York City. This story, therefore, may be regarded as a sort of quasi-official dialogue between Boston and New York." Editorial Note.

Explosives

See Fire Prevention.

Fire Prevention

Bennett (Walter H.). Fire prevention from a legislative viewpoint. Address before the ninth annual convention of the Fire Marshals' Association of North America at Asheville, North Carolina, September 11, 1914. 15 pp.

——. The fire problem in Illinois. An address by Walter H. Bennett . . . Springfield, Ill., Fire marshal department (1914). 29 pp.

Chicago, Ill. Municipal Reference Library. Ordinances re storage and manufacture of fireworks and explosives, compiled in the Municipal Reference Library, Chicago, Ill. October, 1914. 8 pp., typewritten. 4°.

Cleveland, O. Chamber of Commerce. Fire prevention day, Friday, October 9, 1914. 2 leaves.

Fire Prevention. Danger zone; building codes; private and public extinguishing appliances; control of occupancy hazard; state and municipal laws. (Contract Record. October 28, 1914. 3,000 words.)

Fire Department of New Orleans. (Fireman's Herald. October 17, 1914. 2,000 words. illus.)

A short article on the New Orleans fire department, by the chief of the department, Louis Pujol, is printed in the American City of October, 1914.

Illinois. Fire Marshal Department. Fire prevention day in schools, October 9, 1914; proclamation of the governor, program for fire prevention day; lessons and statistics on the fire waste for use in the schools of Illinois. 48 pp., illus.

Longley (W. E.). Analysis of chief causes of fires. (American City. July, 1914. pp. 41–45.)

New York State. Industrial Board. Bulletin 5. Fire alarm signal systems for factory buildings more than two stories in height where more than seventy-five persons are employed above the ground floor. 14 pp.

——. Proposed rules defining fireproof and fire-resisting materials. Public hearings July 8–14, 1914. 42 pp.

Pennsylvania. Department of Labor and Industry. Monthly Bulletin, v. 1, no. 1. June, 1914. 10 pp.

No. 1. Fire drills and fire brigades; safety and welfare standards; regulation and requirements for motion picture theatres. 48 pp.

Food and Drug Regulation

Wilbert (Martin I.). The sale and use of poisons in cities. (City Record of Boston. November 21, 1914. pp. 1099.)

Franchises

Cincinnati, O. Code of franchises. Published by the direction of the council of the city of Cincinnati . . . 1914. (4), 456 pp.

Housing

Aronovici (Carol). Social value of a housing survey. (Town Development, September, 1914, pp. 20–22.)

Fripp (R. M.). Speculation on the problem of housing the working classes in Vancouver. (Contract Record, October 14, 1914. 2,500 words.)

Holland (B.). The London housing difficulty. (National Review, August, 1914. 10 pp.)

Massachusetts. Homestead Commission. Annual report, 1. 1914. 336 pp.

Appendix, pp. 75–325, Foreign governmental aid in home building.

Neumann (Erwin). Beitrag zum Wohnungswesen in den Vereinigten Staaten unter besonderer Berücksichtigung von New York. (Städtebau, July-August, 1914. pp. 85–89, 104–107.)

Veiller (Lawrence). Protecting residential districts. 17 pp.

National Housing Association Publications no. 26. Price 5 cents. Address 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

Markets

See also Food and Drug Regulation.

AUSTIN (CHARLES B.) AND WEHRWEIN (GEORGE S.). University of Texas. Cooperation in agriculture, marketing, and rural credit. 100 pp. (Bulletin no. 355, University of Texas, August 25, 1914.)

CHICAGO, ILL. Municipal Markets Commission. Statement submitted to the committee on judiciary of the Chicago city council by the Chicago Municipal Markets Commission on the proposed ordinance licensing and regulating commission merchants, jobbers and brokers in farm produce and foodstuffs. November 12, 1914. 11 pp. Typewritten.

Not seen. Title supplied by Chicago Municipal Reference Library.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY. Graduate School of Business Administration. . . . Harvard system of accounts for retail grocers; explanation of the profit and loss statement. (Bulletin no. 3 of the Bureau of Business Research, July, 1914. 24 pp., fold. tables.)

Motion Pictures

GREAT BRITAIN. Reports and special report from the select committee on London county council (general powers) bill [part vi.], city of London (various powers) bill [part iii.] and Glasgow corporation (celluloid) bill, together with the proceedings of the committee and minutes of evidence. 1914. xvi, 455 pp. F°.

House of Commons Paper 374, 1914. Price 3s. 9d.

The parts of bills cited relate to the regulations regarding celluloid and cinematograph trades.

LIST OF REFERENCES ON MOTION PICTURES. (Special Libraries. September, 1914. pp. 107–113.)

VERMONT. Board of Health. Bulletin, v. 15, no. 1. September, 1914. Contains rules governing motion picture theatres.

The federal acts relating to motion pictures are codified in the Mallory Compilation of U. S. Statutes recently issued in 5 vols. They are as follows:

Tariff Act 1913, sec. 380. Censorship of imported films by the secretary of the treasury; customs duties.

Act August 24, 1912, c. 356. Photoplay copyrights.

Act July 31, 1912, c. 263. Regulation of prize fight films.

Municipal Forestry

BOSTWICK (ANDREW L.). Municipal tree-planting by special assessment-laws and practices in several states and cities. (Municipal Journal, October 29, 1914, pp. 632.)

NEW YORK STATE. College of Forestry, Syracuse. Bulletin, series 14, no. 2(b), 2(d).

No. 2(b). Rural and city shade tree improvement. University extension service in forestry. May, 1914. 15 pp.

No. 2(d). Possibilities of municipal forestry in New York. By N. C. Brown. June, 1914. 19 pp., illus.

REYNOLDS (HARRIS A.). Town forests—a European idea by which America might profit. 1,300 words. illus. (American City. October, 1914.)

Municipal Reference Libraries

See also the note under Streets.

Chicago

CHICAGO PUBLIC LIBRARY. Municipal Reference Library. List of reports and documents relating to public utility valuations on file in the Chicago Municipal Reference Library. October, 1914. 9 pp. Typewritten. 4°.

Address: Room 1005, City Hall, Chicago.

——. Ordinances re storage and manufacture of fireworks and explosives. October, 1914. 8 pp. Typewritten. 4°.

——. Bulletin 4. November, 1914. 16 pp.

No. 4. Payment of fines in installments by offenders. 16 pp.

New York City

NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY. Municipal Reference Branch. Notes, v. 1, no. 1–6. October 28–December 2, 1914.

Dr. Charles C. Williamson, librarian The Municipal Reference Branch is located in Room 500 of the Municipal Building. The "Notes" is a 4-page issue published weekly for circulation among the officials and employees of the city.

St. Louis

MUNICIPAL TREE-PLANTING BY SPECIAL ASSESSMENT—LAWS AND PRACTICES IN SEVERAL STATES AND CITIES. By Andrew L. Bostwick. (Municipal Journal, October 29, 1914. pp. 632.)

Municipal Research Bureaus

Dayton, O.

DAYTON, O. BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH. Shade trees in Dayton. October, 1914. 2 leaves.

Results of a brief investigation of Dayton's trees, made by representatives of the Ohio State Agricultural College in co-operation with the Welfare Department and the Bureau of Municipal Research.

——Water improvement plans. A statement of the proposed waterworks improvements for the city of Dayton. October, 1914. 4 leaves.

——Budget classification, 1915. 8 leaves.

——. A Human Interest Story. Baby death rate in Dayton reduced! October, 1914. Folder.

Philadelphia

BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH, PHILADELPHIA. Citizens' business. Bulletin, 127–129. 16°.

No. 127. October 29, 1914. The unemployed want work, not charity. 2 leaves.

No. 128. Not seen.

No. 129. November 12, 1914. City of Philadelphia, budget story no. 2. 2 leaves.

Springfield, Mass.

SPRINGFIELD (MASS.) BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH. Public Affairs no. 5. No matter who is elected—should not departmental efficiency be raised where possible? 4 pp.

Toronto, Canada.

BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH, TORONTO, CANADA. Effective Citizen Co-operation. Bulletin 30–34. September–November, 1914. Folders.

No. 30. Getting down to brass tacks. September 23. [Notice of appointment of a deputation consisting of the mayor, controller, one alderman, city treasurer and city auditor to inspect the accounting departments of New York city and Reading, Pa.

No. 31. What reorganization has been effected in the Toronto Fire Department since October 31, 1913? September 26.

No. 32. Nero fiddled while Rome burned. [Fire losses in Toronto compared with those of Paris and Philadelphia.] October 21.

No. 33. [Outline of program for 1914–15 of Municipal Improvement Association and of Bureau of Municipal Research.] October 23.

No. 34. Lack of uniformity from city to city in the classification of accounts and methods of reporting financial facts largely destroys the value of comparison as to cost and amount of civic services performed and therefore retards progress in civic efficiency.

Contains a table showing net debt and tax rate statistics of five Canadian and 11 American cities.

Address: Lumsden Building, Toronto.

Neighborhood Improvement

LEFFERTS GUARDIAN (The). Published in the interests of the Lefferts Place Association and devoted to the preservation of residential neighborhoods. v. 1, no. 1. October 17, 1914.

Richard J. Geary, editor and publisher, 118 Lefferts Place, Brooklyn, New York. Price 3 cents per issue.

Ordinances

See also under Building Construction for references to building codes.

HOUSTON, TEXAS. The revised code of ordinances of the city of Houston of 1914, passsed May 6, 1914 . . . in connection with which are published the charter of the city of Houston, as amended to October, 1913 . . . and the code of criminal procedure relating to municipal corporations, compiled and indexed by E. P. Phelps . . . 1914. 76, xvii, 8, iii, 560, lxxvi, pp. 8°.

Police

NEW YORK CITY. Police Department. How to keep well. October 1, 1914. 6 leaves. 12°.

Rules of health for the city police force prepared by a committee of police surgeons.

Public Service

AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION. Proposed plan for training schools for public service. Submitted by committee on practical training for public service. 15 pp.

The members of the committee are: Charles McCarthy, Albert Bushnell Hart, Benjamin F. Shambaugh, William F. Willoughby, Raymond G. Gettell, and Edward A. Fitzpatrick, executive secretary. Address: Box 300, Madison, Wisconsin.

National Conference on Universities and Public Service. The college and the city. A series of addresses delivered at the National Conference on Universities and Public Service [pursuant to a] call issued by Mayor John Purroy Mitchel of New York City. 75 pp.

The conference was held in New York City on May 12 and 13, 1914, under the auspices of the committee on practical training for public service of the American Political Science Association. The publication is dedicated to Walter Stern "whose stimulating generosity has made the separate publication of this pamphlet possible."

Contents: The College and the City. By John Purroy Mitchel; pp. 7–9. Democracy and a Trained Public Service, pp. 10–12. The Ideal Municipal University. By Frederick C. Hicks; pp. 13–18. New York City as a Political Science Laboratory. By Charles A. Beard; pp. 19–25. New York as a Sociological Laboratory. By Samuel McCune Lindsay; pp. 26–31. The Opportunity of the College of the City of New York. By Albert Shiels; pp. 32–38. What a College of Administration might do for New York. By Jeremiah W. Jenks; pp. 39–48. The College of the City of New York and Community Service. By Stephen P. Duggan; pp. 49–53. A new Educational Development. By Robert S. Binkerd; pp. 54–55. Demonstration of University and Government Co-operation. By P. R. Kolbe; pp. 56–59.

Public Utilities

Behrman (Martin). New Orleans; a history of three great public utilities, sewerage, water and drainage, and their influence upon the health and progress of a big city. Paper read by Hon. Martin Behrman, mayor of New Orleans, La., before convention of League of American Municipalities, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, September 29, 1914. 16 pp.

Chicago, Ill. Department of Public Service. Preliminary report upon interlocking control of public utilities in the city of Chicago. July, 1914. 9 pp.

—— ——. Statement of work. August, 1914. 6 pp.

——. Municipal Reference Library. List of reports and documents relating to public utility valuations on file in the Chicago Municipal Reference Library, 1005 City Hall. October, 1914. 9 pp. typewritten. 4°.

Concerning Municipal Ownership. v. 7, no. 9–10. September-October, 1914. pp. 193–240.

No. 9. Private vs. municipal ownership of utilities. Municipal ownership in Washington, D. C.
No. 10. The Cleveland municipal electric plant.

Gesell (Gerhard A.) Minnesota public utility rates; gas, electric, water; compiled in the Municipal Reference Bureau of the general extension division, v. 254. pp. (Minneapolis, Bulletin of the University of Minnesota. No. 3 (Current problems), October 1914.)

Electricity

Chicago, Ill. Department of public service. The electric bureau of the Department of Public Service, city of Chicago . . . October 1, 1914. [1st report.] 20 pp., table, chart. 8°.

Gas

—— ——. Report of the gas bureau of the Department of Public Service, city of Chicago . . . October 1, 1914. [1st report.] 32 pp., illus., map, tables. 8°.

Street Railways

United States. Foreign Commerce Bureau. Street railways in Germany. (In Daily Consular and Trade Reports, October 28, 1914, no. 253. pp. 490–91; tables.)

Telephones

Chicago, Ill. Department of Public Service. The telephone bureau of the Department of Public Service, city of Chicago . . . October 1, 1914. [1st report.] (1), 16 pp., map, tables, charts.

Water

Chicago, Ill. Sanitary District. The water power development of the sanitary district of Chicago. The report of the commission on sewage disposal and water power development. (Proceedings of the Board of Trustees of the Sanitary District.

of Chicago, November 12, 1914. pp. 1719–1861.) Plans, maps, tables, charts.

San Diego, Cal. Department of Water. Rules and rates of the Department of Water. Ordinance No. 5677, an ordinance relating to water service and rates. Adopted July 3, 1914. 31 pp. 24°.

Purchasing Systems

New York City. Municipal Reference Library. A list of references on the purchasing of municipal supplies and related topics. (Bulletin No. 5, November 25, 1914, of the Municipal reference branch of the New York Public Library, pp. 21–24.)

Recreation

City Club of Milwaukee. Amusements and Recreation in Milwaukee. A bulletin of the City Club. 1914. 56 pp.

Spontaneous and co-operative amusements: commercialized amusements: recreation provided by philanthropic agencies: municipal recreation: a constructive program: statutes and ordinances on recreation.

Forbush (William B.). Manual of play. Philadelphia, 1914. 353 pp.

Has a 17½ page bibliography.

Refuse Disposal

Chicago, Ill. City Waste Commission. Report. June, 1914. 69 pp. folding tables.

——. Same. (In: Chicago. Council Proceedings, June 9, 1914, pp. 613–625.)

School Census

Chicago, Ill. Board of Education. Report of the Chicago school census of 1914. 37 pp.

Schools

Municipal League of Los Angeles. Report of the executive committee of the Municipal League on the Los Angeles City School Department, October 13, 1914. 7 pp.

Address: Municipal League of Los Angeles, 606–609 Equitable Bank Building.

New York City. Department of Education. Course of study in civics as adopted by the board of education May 27, 1914, with a syllabus as adopted by the board of superintendents, June 4, 1914. 20 pp.

Sewage Disposal

See also Public Utilities: Water.

Chicago, Ill. The future sanitary problem of Chicago; a symposium; discussion by E. H. Lee and others. (Journal of the Western Society of Engineers, October, 1914. pp. 757–775.)

Jameson (Robert M.). Methods of sewage disposal for Texas cities. October 1, 1914. 64 pp. (Bulletin of the University of Texas, no. 362. Municipal Research series, no. 4.)

Potter (W. G.). Sewage disposal plant at Aberdeen, South Dakota, by W. G. Potter, with discussion by W. D. Gerber and others. (Journal of the Western Society of Engineers, October, 1914. pp. 788–805; illus., fold; plans.)

Signs and Billboards

McFarland (J. H.). Illegal signs in Pennsylvania. November, 1914. 8 pp.

American Civic Association Bulletin, series II' no. 7. Billboard bulletin no. 3.

Smoke Abatement

Engineering Phases of the Pittsburgh Smoke Problem. 2 pp. (Power. September 8, 1914.)

Klotz (Oskar) and William Charles White, editors. Papers on the influence of smoke on health. 1914. 173 pp., 21 plates. (Smoke Investigation Bulletin 9, Mellon Institute of Industrial Research and School of Specific Industries, University of Pittsburgh.)

Contents: The Relation of Atmospheric Smoke and Health. (With bibliography.) By B. A. Cohoe, pp. 7–63. Pulmonary Arthracosis (sic)—A Community Disease. (With bibliography.) By Oskar Klotz. pp. 64–103. The Bacteriology of Soot. (With bibliography.) By W. L. Holman. pp. 104–122. Some Histological Evidences of the Disease Importance of Pulmonary Anthracosis. (With bibliography.) pp. 123–143. A Study of the Influence of Varying Densities of City Smoke on the Mortality from Pneumonia and Tuberculosis. By William Charles White and C. H. Marcy. pp. 155–164. The Influence of Smoke on Acute and Chronic Lung Infections. By William Charles White and Paul Shuey. pp. 164–173.

STREET (A. L. H.). Soft coal smoke as a legal nuisance. 2 pp. (Power. September 15, 1914.)

Social Evil

COMMONWEALTH CLUB OF CALIFORNIA. Transactions. v. 9, no. 8. September, 1914.

No. 8. The red light abatement law. pp. 469–503.

NANCE (WILLIS O.). Report of observations on the control of prostitution in certain European cities, by Alderman W. O. Nance, submitted to the Chicago city council, November 5, 1914. 14 pp. Typewritten.

Not seen. Title supplied by the Chicago Municipal Reference Library.

Street Cleaning

PAXTON (J. W.). Washington (D. C.) Street Cleaning Methods. A series of articles. (Engineering News. August–October, 1914.)

3d article. August 27, 1914. 2 pp., illus.
4th article. October 1, 1914. 3½ pp., illus. Mr. Paxton is superintendent of street cleaning.

Streets

MUNICIPAL UNIVERSITY OF AKRON, AKRON, O. Akron pavements. A report of an investigation made by the Municipal University of Akron. 73 pp.

The report, which was transmitted in June, 1914, is made by Fred E. Ayer, dean of the College of Engineering. The report proper comprises pp. 1–33 of the publication, the remainder being made up as follows: Appendix A. Report on Contract and specifications for paving, Akron, O. Prepared by the New York Bureau of Municipal Research, June, 1914. pp. 35–50. Appendix B. American Society of Civil Engineers. List of articles on city paving materials. From search made by the library of the society, April 3, 1914. pp. 51–65.

In closing his report Dean Ayer says: "If Akron had a well-organized Municipal Reference Library, a large part of the work of this investigation would have been unnecessary. Most of the published data contained and referred to in this report would have been on file therein and accessible to all the officials of the city government."

Taxation

CITY ASSESSOR'S METHODS IN FIFTY-TWO CITIES OF NEW YORK STATE. Tax maps, field books, and assessment rolls, assessing systems. (Municipal Journal, September 10. pp. 351–353.)

CLEVELAND (O.) CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. The taxation amendment. Report of the committee on city finances adopted by the board of directors, October 29, 1914. 7 pp.

UNITED STATES. Census Bureau. Taxation and revenue systems of state and local governments. A digest of constitutional and statutory provisions relating to taxation in the different states in 1912. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1914: 275 pp. 4°.

Prepared in connection with the decennial investigation in wealth, debt, and taxation authorized by the department census act, and published in advance of the complete report in order that the information contained in it may not be withheld from the public until the completion of the entire report. The sources from which the material was derived are given in footnotes.

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON. Taxation of land values; a bibliography. September, 1914. 20 pp. 12°.

University Extension series, Bulletin no. 13. General series no. 85.

Traffic Regulation

CHICAGO, ILL. Police Department. Rules for the regulation of street traffic, issued by the Police Department of the city of Chicago. September 1, 1914. Folder.

CHICAGO DAILY TRIBUNE. November 28, 1914. Loop district used as a freight yard halts traffic. Article of about 900 words with a traffic map.

CRUTCHER (HARRY M.). New traffic rules for St. Louis. illus. (Municipal Journal. October 1, 1914. pp. 460–461.)

MANCHESTER, ENGLAND. Tramways Department. The passenger transportation problem. Report of the special subcommittee. 1914. x, 141 pp., 72 plans.

Rules and Regulations Governing Street Traffic in Philadelphia. illus. 7,300 words. (Engineering and Contracting. September 30, 1914.)

Rotary and block system, traffic semaphores and zones of safety.

Taylor (A. Merritt). The solution of a city's transit problem. (The Electric Journal. October, 1914. pp. 514–542. illus.)

Mr. Taylor is director of the Department of City Transit, Philadelphia. This article is supplementary to the report of the transit commission of Philadelphia published in 1913 (see National Municipal Review Jan., 1914, p. 214.)

Toll (R. W.). Denver Traffic Investigation. illus. 8 pp. (Aera. October, 1914.)

Transportation Systems

Lavis (F.). New York Rapid Transit Extension. A series of articles. History of rapid transit development in New York, especially evolution of systems now under construction. (Engineering News. October 1–15.)

1st article. Oct. 1. 5,000 words. illus.
2d article. October 8. 7,200 words. illus.
3d article. October 15. 4,800 words. illus.

Unemployment

O'Hara (Frank). Unemployment in Oregon; its nature, extent and remedies. September 1, 1914. 39 pp.

Report to the Oregon Committee on seasonable unemployment.

Philadelphia, (Pa.). Bureau of Municipal Research. Citizens' business. Bulletin 127. October 29, 1914. The unemployed want work, not charity. 2 leaves. 16°.

Sears (Amelia). The problem of unemployment and possible destitution, submitted to Chicago Municipal Markets Commission. October 1, 1914. 13 pp. Typewritten.

Miss Sears is director of the Bureau of Public Welfare of Cook county.

Wood (Arthur E.). A study of the unemployed in Portland, Oregon. December, 1914. 32 pp. 12°.

Reed College Record, no. 18; social service bulletin, no. 3.

Vocational Education

New York City. Department of Education. Industrial conference, Washington Irving High School, June 29, 1914. 61 pp.

A meeting called to consider plans for extending vocational education in New York City. The addresses made by the following speakers are printed Hon. John P. Mitchel, mayor of the city of New York, Mr. Charles A. Prosser, secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Dr. Gustave Straubenmüller, associate city superintendent of schools, New York City, Hon. William A. Prendergast, comptroller of the city of New York, Mr. H. E. Miles, president of the Wisconsin State Boards of Industrial Education, Mr. William Wirt, superintendent of schools of Gary, Indiana.

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TWENTIETH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

HELD AT

BALTIMORE, MARYLAND, NOVEMBER 18, 19, 20, 1914

Wednesday Evening Session

McCoy Hall, Wednesday, November 18, 1914, 8 p. m.

Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte, former president of the National Municipal League, in the chair.

After an invocation by the Rev. George W. Lay of Raleigh, William H. Maltbie, the president of the Baltimore city club, addressed the league as follows:

My own idea, ladies and gentlemen, delegates to the National Municipal League meeting, officers of the league,—my own idea of an address of welcome on an occasion like this is merely that of the householder who hears a rap at the door, and, opening it, finds a welcome guest. He says nothing more than "Come in. I am glad to see you. Make yourself at home." And when I was asked to make an address of welcome to-night, I replied that that was all I wanted to say, but I was told that that was not what was desired, they wanted me to go on and say something more than that.

If I were to go on and tell our guests here to-night all the good things that I could think of about Baltimore, that would sound something to me like taking a man through my house and pointing out the various things there that I am proud of. I don't think that would be good taste. We could talk about Baltimore and its beauties indefinitely. We might also talk about the history of the league indefinitely, but you know about that better than I do.

It seems to me this is a special occasion. These are not merely guests. They are municipal specialists. Therefore, it might not be amiss to treat them as consulting physicians, and therefore not amiss for me in welcoming them to take this opportunity to tell them in a few words what we have here, in the hope that I may place before them the history of the case, as physicians would say, and give them some information that perhaps they may need in prescribing for us. If in doing that, I tread upon any local toes, remember, please, that I am speaking now on my own responsibility.

Baltimore is, as you all know, a city of about 560,000 inhabitants, crowded into 31½ square miles. The town is of two parts, the old town, as it was in 1888; and the annex. In the old town, according to the last census, we have our population crowded so densely that, eliminating the harbor and the parks, we show an average population of about 36,000 to the square mile. In the annex territory, cutting out the parks, the population is only 7,000 to the square mile. That gives us two different types of municipal problems.

We would like to expand. We would like to make the city of Baltimore take in a larger amount of outlying territory. Baltimore has a unique situation. It is not in any county. We are surrounded on three sides by Baltimore county, but we are not a part of it. Consequently, if we seek to expand we must have a county line moved, and that will take away from Baltimore county its richest taxable basis, its largest vote. Now Baltimore county is a peculiar place.

For a generation practically it has been the private property politically of one man. It is probably the best guarded and best protected private political preserve in the United States of America, and consequently that one man would not for an instant think of allowing the taxable basis of the county, or the votes in the county, to be diverted from the county to the city. I am not censuring him. I would not either, and neither would you. More than that, Baltimore county has no incorporated towns in it, so that by spreading the tax load over the entire county it has become possible in these suburban districts outside of the city to have practically all the city privileges, streets, schools, fire protection, police protection, practically all of the privileges that one would get in the city, on a taxable rate of only about one half or two thirds of the city rate. So it is not only an impossibility to get the sentiment of the political leaders changed, but it is an impossibility to get the sentiment of the residents in the territory changed. Therefore our first problem, that of annexation, we have come to regard as absolutely hopeless of solution unless you gentlemen who are here as municipal experts can help us.

Coming within the city of Baltimore, we find that we are subject more or less to a peculiar situation as to the state. We are to an unusual degree a ward of the state. Having about one half of the population of the state, we have only 24 members in the house out of 102; in the senate only 4 out of 27. In consequence, we must take from the state whatever the state chooses to give us, and we must render to the state whatever the state chooses to ask. In consequence of that fact, the state has assumed control over our police force and our liquor license board, and it takes from us such percentage of our liquor license receipts, of our fees, and our court receipts as to the state seems good, and the state's pleasure is not always ours.

We have gained, however, one important advance. We have secured the right to separate our municipal elections from our state elections. In consequence, although it is not usually regarded so, Baltimore, in its municipal affairs, is a short ballot town. Each voter votes for two councilmen, president of the second branch city council, mayor and comptroller. This has been a decided gain, a decided advantage. Those of you who are interested in the short ballot system will find us an interesting subject to discuss.

We have, however, a rather peculiar condition as to our organization, our form of government. We are classed, I suppose, as being a city that is governed by a mayor and a two-branch city council. On paper that is true, but successive modifications of the charter have cut down the power of the council so that it no longer has the power to award any contracts, to grant any franchises, to make any appropriations. It no longer has the power to distribute paving operations to favored contractors or districts, to place street lights where it wants them. As a result of this reduction of its powers it has become the stamping ground of minor political leaders with a few exceptions, the real leaders preferring appointive positions under the mayor, since these carry greater power to distribute jobs.

The former power of the city council has been turned over to the board of estimates. Our board of estimates consists of five men. They have the right to grant franchises. They make all appropriations. They regulate through their power to make appropriations each of the departments, the salaries of each of the employees, and the lines of work which the department shall take up. Of this board of five men three are elected,—the mayor, the president of the second branch of the city council, and the comptroller. Two are appointed by the mayor. In consequence, a mayor who is politically wise, and he usually is, by making wise appointments of the city solicitor and the city engineer has practically complete control of the city during his term of office.

All of the appointments of the mayor are ratified by one branch of the city council, and after six months in public office the head of the department is supposed to be safe from further interference. He is free to do as he pleases, and cannot be removed except by trial. As a practical matter of fact, he is in for four years and the salaries of his employees, and the appropriations for his work are subject to the board of estimates. In consequence, if the mayor cares to exercise such a control, he has practical control over the appointments in all of the city departments. Occasionally, a head of a department takes the bit in his teeth, bolts, and announces his independence. The experiment is not frequently tried.

One other point, the salaries that we pay are very low, ridiculously so in fact. As a result of that our departments have had to be officered by one of three types of men; the small man who is worth the salary and no more; the larger man who is worth a larger salary, but is not willing to give his time (he takes his job and pay and turns over the work to a deputy); and the big man who recognizes his duty to the city and sacrifices himself officially and financially for the sake of the department. We have that type just as we have the other two.

Our accounting system has always been poor. Years ago, some of the earlier steps recommended by the National Municipal League were adopted. Since then our comptroller's report always states that our accounts are drawn up along the lines of the National Municipal League system. As an actual fact that probably was at first true, but that was the first time that the league had considered the subject, and its ideas were rather defective. These ideas have been developing since, but our accounting system has not. It is not an uncommon thing for our accounting system to show that the department during the year had saved money, when as an actual matter it had incurred indebtedness in excess of its appropriations; and we have not always remembered the distinction between corpus and income. But, be it said to our honor, we are even now improving these things, and next year a new system of accounting will be installed which we trust will put us on an absolutely sound basis.

Our public utilities, so far as gas and electric light are concerned, are in the hands of a single corporation. Our transportation is in the hands of a single corporation. Our sewerage, water, and subways are all under the control of the city. I think there is nothing particular to say regarding them.

Our public debt has been growing by leaps and bounds. It is now something over $70,000,000, with enough more authorized to bring it up to $100,000,000. Its sinking funds are pretty well safeguarded, although in the past, not recently, we have been guilty of investing them in securities that could not be realized upon, ground rents under city buildings, for example. We are now investing the sinking funds in city securities that do not mature until after the maturity of the loan for which they are purchased, but, unfortunately, we are not unique in that regard.

Our fire department and our police departments are under what is known as the "merit system." Apart from that, I think the whole city, with the possible exception of the school system, is frankly on the political basis. The only difference between successive administrations is that some of them have run the city on a political basis, and some of them have frankly run the city on a political basis. The present administration does it frankly. Personally, I rather prefer things done frankly than otherwise.

We are a southern city, and that means a particular difficulty in the merit system. What the south wants in a merit system is some plan which will make it impossible to bar a man from civil service positions on account of his political complexion, and yet be absolutely certain to bar him from position on account of his complexion.

Our present charter is a gradual revision from the one with which we started generations back. I hope that the president in his address to us to-night on charter making will say something to us that will guide us along our way. Our great difficulty in charter making is in getting away from precedent. After a thing is once incorporated in a Baltimore charter it is as nearly free from any danger of the ravages of time as anything can be on earth. By way of illustration,—in the early days the law in Baltimore provided that any man might have a switch connection with a railroad track provided he put up the money for it, and another law provided that the city might take up railroad tracks provided it refunded to the railroad the expense of laying them. One of our earlier charter makers put those two laws together in a single paragraph, so that it read that a man might have a switch if he paid for it, and the city might take it up if it gave back to the railroad the money that it cost. That has been in our charter for twenty or thirty years, and then was included in the new charter recently proposed but not adopted.

Another illustration,—there was once a thing in Baltimore city known as the "limit of direct taxation." There has not been such a thing for a quarter of a century, but it is still in the charter. I asked one of the men who were revising the charter about it, and he said, "Yes, I left it in." I said, "What is it?" He said, "I will confess I don't know what it is, but I tell you I feel a good deal more comfortable with that in the charter than I would with it out."

Our charter as it stands to-day is a vast, almost unintelligible jungle of present day law and decayed timber. We are looking to you, Mr. President, to guide us into a method of charter making by which we can change this idea of piling up continually, and get strength to cut out that which is not needed.

Now, I have not been complaining of my town. What I have said does not mean that I do not love it, for I do. I have tried to point out to you some of the problems that stand before us here in Baltimore, so that you men who are coming to us as experts may tell us how to solve them before you leave; and while you are here the town is yours.

Camillus G. Kidder, Esq., of Orange, New Jersey, a vice president, responded on behalf of the National Municipal League. Following the address of welcome, the secretary of the league, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, presented his annual review of municipal events entitled, "Present Phases of the Municipal Situation." (NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. IV, p. 1.)

Following this President Foulke delivered his annual address on "Evolution in City Charter Making." (Vol. IV, p.13.)

THURSDAY MORNING SESSION

Hotel Emerson, Thursday, November 19, 1914, 10 a. m.

The annual business meeting of the National Municipal League was called to order Thursday, November 19, at 10 o'clock, by President Foulke.

The first item of business was the presentation of the report of the executive committee which follows:

REPORT OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Fourteen essays were submitted in competition for the *Baldwin Prize* for 1914 on the subject "Is the commission form of government a permanent one." The first prize was awarded to Miss Sybel Edelweiss Loughead, of Radcliffe College, Cambridge, Massachusetts, with honorable mention of Thomas L. Dyer, Stanford University, California.

Four essays were submitted in competition for the *Los Angeles Prize* for the best essay on "The best charter for Los Angeles," the prize being awarded to Miss Helen Dolley, of the University of Southern California.

Three essays were submitted in competition for the *Cincinnati Prize* for the best essay on "The best charter for Cincinnati," the prize being awarded to Oscar F. See, University of Cincinnati.

The *Morton D. Hull Prize* of $250 for the best essay submitted by a graduate student on some subject connected with municipal government was established during the year by Hon. Morton Hull, of Chicago, a former member of the council. The subscription was made for five years, Mr. Hull bearing the cost of administration. In competition for the prize nine essays were received September 15, 1914. The prize was awarded to Willits Pollock, University of Wisconsin, his subject being "Municipal home rule under the Wisconsin state commission." The judges reported that the character of the essays was unusually high.

The *Portland Prize* has been established through the activity of Rev. W. G. Eliot, Jr., a member of our council.

The subject for the *Baldwin Prize* for 1915 is "A critical study of the sources of municipal revenue in any city with a population exceeding 50,000."

The *Los Angeles Prize* will not be renewed for the present year.

The *High School Prize* will be offered for the best essay on the subject of "Fire prevention."

In view of the number of prizes now offered it is suggested that a special committee on prizes be appointed, as a number of questions that require consideration and determination are received from time to time.[1]

Four books have thus far been published in the National Municipal League Series. The publisher's statement of November 2, 1914, shows sales as follows:

	No. sold
Initiative, Referendum and Recall.	1,600
Regulation of Municipal Utilities..	1,250
Social Center....................	1,300
City Government by Commission..	2,200

The manuscripts of four new volumes have been accepted and will shortly be published. They are as follows:

Relation of the City to its Food Supply, Dr. Clyde L. King.
Commission Manager Plan, H. A. Toulmin, Jr.
Women's Work for Municipalities, Mrs. Charles A. Beard.
Satellite Cities, Graham Romeyn Taylor.

The committee has been in close and sympathetic affiliation with the committee on civic education in its work, which will be separately reported upon.

In response to the invitation of the joint committee of the American Political Science Association and the American Economic Association, a committee of three members consisting of Richard S. Childs, Dr. John A. Fairlie and Clinton Rogers Woodruff was appointed on training for municipal service, to co-operate with the first two mentioned organizations.

A committee has been appointed to report upon effective co-operation between the General Federation of Women's Clubs and the National Municipal League. This committee consists of Mrs. John M. Oakley, of Philadelphia, Mrs. Florence Kelley, of New York, Mrs. Samuel B. Sneath, of Tiffin, Ohio, Miss Jane Campbell, of Philadelphia, and the secretary.

The secretary reports that the number of resignations for the months of September and October, 1914, was 12 less than for the corresponding months in 1913,—certainly a most satisfactory showing. The number of resignations in these months in usually high because of the large number of bills sent out as of the October quarter. The statement for the two months was as follows:

1913	Additions	Resignations	Deaths	Transfers Contributing to annual
September..	12	42	4	0
October....	25	50	4	3
				Contributing to life
				1
	37	92	8	
1914				Contributing to annual
September..	12	12	1	0
October....	20	68	4	7
	32	80	5	

The treasurer reports that 16 members had agreed to contribute $10 annually for five years and 20 increased their contributions for the current year.

In view of the possibility of a diminished income a number of economies have been instituted. We have done a much larger amount of work in our own office than heretofore and the size of the October issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW was reduced to 168 pages as compared with 204 in the July issue and 224 in the April issue. We feel that with the continued active co-operation of the members of the council we may be able to hold our own during the present depression and prepare for a strong forward movement along all lines when conditions become more settled.

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[1] In accordance with the recommendations of the Executive Committee the President was authorized to appoint a committee of seven to administer the prizes. Subsequent to the meeting in Baltimore, the President announced the appointment of Dr. E. M. Sait, Columbia University, Professor W. B. Munro, Harvard University, Professor H. G. James, University of Texas, Charles W. Ames, St. Paul, Camillus G. Kidder, New York, R. Bayard Cutting, New York, A. Leo Weil, Pittsburgh.

The committee appointed delegates to the conference of American mayors held in Philadelphia November 12 to 14, and to the conference on training for municipal service in New York in May and to sundry other meetings of the same character.

The publication of the "commission-manager pamphlet" met a long-felt want, 7,500 of an edition of 10,000 having already been disposed of and the demand continuing.

The league has been invited to co-operate with the American Society for the Advancement of Science in regard to holding a session to discuss municipal topics in connection with the Panama-Pacific Exposition.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

M. N. BAKER,
Chairman.

The report of the treasurer was then presented, the treasurer explaining that the fiscal year ended March 31, and that the following report represented the transactions from April 1 to October 31, 1914.

REPORT OF TREASURER

March 31st to October 31st, 1914

RECEIPTS

Dues uncollected (acct. membership dues)	$7,821.00
Committee on civic education	1,922.66
Contributions	1,566.70
Proceedings—sales	25.25
REVIEW advertising—sales	2.50
Baldwin prize	100.00
NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW—sales	286.66
Interest	$11.23
Loan	300.00
Cost of living committee	200.00
Office furniture	2.50
Appleton books	60.61
Royalties	116.17
REVIEW underwriting fund	790.00
Portland prize	600.00
Los Angeles prize	100.00
Exchange	41.30
Total receipts	$13,946.58
Balance March 31st, 1914	286.50
	$14,233.08

DISBURSEMENTS

Committee on civic education	$1,593.39
Salaries and clerical	4,341.37
Postage	767.48
Printing and stationery	542.80
News clippings	48.85
Municipal program committee	100.00
Clipping sheet	10.00
Office rent	437.50
Travelling	200.76
General	407.52
C. L. King (acct. royalties)	9.15
Baldwin prize	100.00
NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW—publishing expense	2,837.74
Cost of living committee	300.00
Cincinnati prize	20.00
Office furniture	17.00
Appleton books	44.00
Los Angeles prize	100.00
Voucher account	2,126.48
Exchange	41.30
Total disbursements	$14,045.34
Balance October 31st, 1914	187.74
	$14,233.08

The report of the nominating committee was then read by Mr. John Ihlder, a member of the committee.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

The committee on nominations recommends the re-nomination of the present general officers as follows:

President—William Dudley Foulke, Richmond, Ind.

Secretary—Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia, Pa.

Treasurer—George Burnham, Jr., Philadelphia, Pa.

and of the nine vice-presidents as follows:

Miss Jane Addams, Chicago, Ill.
John Stewart Bryan, Richmond, Va.
Camillus G. Kidder, Orange, N. J.
A. Lawrence Lowell, Cambridge
George McAneny, New York.
J. Horace McFarland, Harrisburg, Pa.
Charles Richardson, Philadelphia.
Chester H. Rowell, Fresno, Cal.
Dudley Tibbits, Troy, N. Y.

together with Frank J. Goodnow, of Baltimore, Md.

The committee also recommends the re-nomination of the following members of the council:

Charles W. Andrews, Syracuse, N. Y.
M. N. Baker, Montclair, N. J.
William P. Bancroft, Wilmington, Del.
Charles J. Bonaparte, Baltimore, Md.
John A. Butler, Milwaukee, Wis.
William M. Chadbourne, New York.
Harvey Stuart Chase, Boston, Mass.
Richard S. Childs, New York City.
Julius Henry Cohen, New York City.
Dwight F. Davis, St. Louis, Mo.
Mrs. Charles F. Edson, Los Angeles.
Rev. W. G. Eliot, Jr., Portland, Oregon.
Walter L. Fisher, Chicago, Ill.
Clarence L. Harper, Philadelphia.
Albert Bushnell Hart, Cambridge, Mass.
Raymond V. Ingersoll, New York City.
William D. Lighthall, Montreal, Can.
Meyer Lissner, Los Angeles, Cal.
Knowlton Mixer, Buffalo, N. Y.
Frederic Cook Morehouse, Milwaukee.
Oliver McClintock, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Robert Treat Paine, Boston.
Elliott Hunt Pendleton, Cincinnati.
James W. S. Peters, Kansas City, Mo.
Lawson Purdy, New York City.
Frederick L. Siddons, Washington, D. C.
F. S. Spence, Toronto, Canada.
Howard Strong, Minneapolis.
George B. Ward, Birmingham, Ala.
A. Leo Weil, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Thomas Raeburn White, Philadelphia.

And the following additional names:

Alexander B. Andrews, Jr., Raleigh.
Ernest H. Abbott, New York City.
George B. Dealey, Dallas, Texas.
A. M. Fuller, Meadville, Pa.
Mrs. B. W. Corkran, Jr., Baltimore.
George Dudley Seymour, New Haven.
Willard Straight, New York City.

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS.
WILLIAM B. HOWLAND,
Chairman.
Miss Harlean James.
Dr. Edward M. Sait.
John Ihlder.
Robert S. Binkerd.

On motion of Lieutenant C. P. Shaw of Norfolk the report was accepted and the secretary was instructed to cast a unanimous ballot for the persons named in the report. The secretary then announced that he had carried out the instructions of the meeting and had cast a unanimous ballot for the officers and members of the council mentioned in the nominating committee's report.

MR. WOODRUFF: Usually at this time we authorize the council to fill any vacancies that may occur during the year. We do not anticipate any vacancies, but occasionally one does occur. I therefore move that the council be authorized to fill vacancies that may occur during the coming year.

This motion was duly adopted.

MR. FOULKE: I desire to say that I appreciate very deeply this testimony of confidence in re-electing me as president of the league, and I also desire to say that this will have to be the last time for two reasons. In the first place, I have gone a little beyond the limit of time that ought to be allowed to a president of the league. We have an unwritten rule that no person should remain president of the league too long. We do not all agree what "too long" means, but four or five years are quite enough. But there is another reason. I am not able to be president as the condition of my health is such that I think that there is a great deal of danger in the amount of work which I have to do as president of the league. I therefore must regard the new year of service upon which I am entering as the last one which I can fill.

We will now hear the report of the advisory committee, Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte, chairman.

Report of Advisory Committee

Mr. Bonaparte: On behalf of the advisory committee, I desire to say in the first place that all of its members who are present have heard it, and all of those absent have had direct information of your acceptance, of your re-election, and they desire to say through me, and as a part of their report, that they express the gratification of the league at having you still at their head, and they hope that next year you will still be able to put off for a year longer the time of your going on the retired list. The late Lord Roberts did a good deal of work after he had gone on the retired list, and some of those who have served their country and other good causes as strenuously, if not perhaps as pugnaciously as he did, may also look forward to an opportunity for usefulness even when they are less young than they once were.

The advisory committee has not had a great deal to do during the year. It has been from time to time consulted by the council, as to certain matters of policy of the league, and it has been the duty of its chairman, which position I have unworthily occupied, to give its members some practise in preferential voting. I remember that the committee was asked to express its preference as to a place of meeting among the five or six or possibly more, candidates for the honor of entertaining the league. As chairman, I took a preferential vote of the members on this subject, and figured it out very satisfactorily that Baltimore was entitled to the honor. I have no doubt that other systems of preferential voting when applied by practical men will lead to the same result, or to results analogous in their characteristics. I may mention that I was a little puzzled when I was asked to obtain the sense of the committee on this subject, because I was requested by the secretary to get a first, second, third and fourth,—if I remember rightly,—preference from the different members, and the question was how that was going to be calculated when you came to figure up the report to be made on it. I adopted a plan original to myself, but for which I have not yet applied for a patent, and which I will, therefore, allow the league to patent if it so desires, of counting. I counted the first choice as one vote for each person, and the second choice as a one-half vote, the third as a one-third, and the fourth as a one-fourth of a vote, and in that way I figured it up, highly satisfactory to myself, that Baltimore was the place that the advisory committee wanted to come to.

Outside of that and possibly one other matter, I think that we were consulted about, the advisory committee has had nothing to do. Its duties are principally those of dispensing gratuitously good advice, which is notoriously cheap, and I have no doubt that it will be ready to continue to discharge that responsibility and laborious duty next year.

Mr. Foulke: The chair might suggest that there could have been even a simpler method of disposing of this preferential vote. Gambetta had a better way of deciding the public opinion of the French people. I believe that the chairman of the advisory committee might perhaps himself have decided the sense and determination of the committee and have proceeded to select Baltimore as the proper place. I am sure when we see the excellent use he has made of his preferential vote, perhaps we may improve upon it in the manner in which I suggest.

I will now ask for the report of the committee on the relations between the General Federation of Women's Clubs and the National Municipal League, or for some remarks and suggestions from the chairman of that committee who is Mrs. Florence Kelley.

Mrs. Kelley: This is a little startling. The committee has not made a report, and it is a question of my having the authority to present one.

Mr. Foulke: By the Gambetta theory, I am quite sure that you may report for the committee.

Mrs. Kelley: I have been asked to prepare a paper for this afternoon and in the process of preparing that paper I have become aware of the urgent need for such a committee made up of representatives jointly of the National Municipal League and the Federation of Women's Clubs. I set out to answer the question in my paper how and when we could stop killing the children in the cities. Miss Lathrop, of the children's bureau, has called our attention to the fact that 300,000 children die in this republic before they reach their first birthday. Neither she nor anyone else knows whether that number is correct or not. We do not have any complete records kept. In New York and Chicago we know that there are very horrifying numbers of young children dying needlessly in the cities.

I set out to find whether any city knows, what we do not know for the nation, where the children die within its own limits, and I found that a considerable number of cities have in the office of the board of health a map studded with various colored pins, showing the commissioner of health where the children die, but I have tried in vain to subscribe for or to get in any way a series of maps giving that information currently, either for a year, or month, or week. Nobody knows, nobody cares enough to know where the children die to have insisted that we should have that information as fully prepared and available as the market reports. I think it will not be very long,—I think perhaps by the end of 1915, we may have such maps in New York City, because there are enough of us there who are determined to know in what houses, in what districts the children die, so I think we shall get it.

In 1910 the census reported for the first time clearly as to the infant mortality in the different areas of the city. The results were surprising. There did not appear to be the relation between congestion and infant mortality that was supposed to exist. They found the children did not all die in the fearfully overcrowded Russian Jewish quarter in the eastern side. They did die on the lower west side where there were little houses with air and light. It turned out as far as one could tell by that report that it was much more a question of race and maternal care of the child. The Jewish women do not go away from their homes and they take much better care of their children.

This is the kind of thing which the cities can do. The federal government cannot do it, the state cannot do it. The registration of the deaths of children is a municipal function exclusively. If the public does not insist that the city shall tell us this, we cannot know it. That was a task which could not fail to interest all the women's clubs and all the branches which had women in them. That we should have publicity on this point was one thing which we should take up and within a few years make it a matter of great disgrace to a city not to know at least from month to month where its children are dying.

Another thing is the local administration of the child labor laws within the cities. I will illustrate again by New York because I happen to know it. It is a rather big question. In New York state before a child may go to work it must have three things: It must first have its certificate that it has finished the work of six years of the public school, certified by its grade teacher, signed by the principal,—of course there are many teachers who will certify to anything to get rid of dull children, and so it was found necessary to have this further countersigned by the principal of the schools, and the district superintendent of schools that this child has finished the work of six years at the public schools. Armed with that the child goes to the board of health and gets its certificate of birth; if that is not already filed with the school, this involves in thousands of cases writing to the old country to get a transcript of the child's certificate. That is done in 80 per cent. War affects this, and the Messina earthquake, and the massacres in Russia. Then all this being done, the child has to go through a physical examination, to show the condition of its health. The local examiner fills out a very wonderful card.

There are many cities in which nothing of this kind is done. The children stream into the factories. The general public must be interested to see that the children should have this certificate of health and education before they go to work. Where the local commissioner has failed, he has had no backing. In most places he has had a great deal of hostility to the enforcement of the law, and no backing. This is a matter of detail, very trying detail to the administrative officer, where he is financially weak, or weak in backing. That is where the women's clubs could help. They should rally to the defense of that part of this law which though enacted by the state is not always enforced.

Thus far, I have been speaking chiefly in relation to the commissioners of health. There is nobody at all doing anything that I have been able to find about the housing proposition. With regard to the children,—the school children as samples, with regard to the detail work it seems to me women's clubs might help. And the work could be done by committees of this league in places where there are no clubs, or the clubs are not very efficient.

After thinking for several months over Mr. Woodruff's question "What such a committee could find as its original work?" I suggest these things as typical.

Mr. Woodruff: I think we have all been impressed with the suggestions of Mrs. Kelley. The General Federation of Women's Clubs is feeling its way toward a more active civic policy. Those who have had the privilege of attending its meetings know that they have evolved into a condition of deep concern about civic matters, and its active officers, its active members generally, are anxious to be of practical and definite use. Our committee grew out of conferences held in California when both the federation and the league were meeting there, one in San Francisco and the other in Los Angeles, and since then there has been an increasing feeling that some effective co-operation should be established, but, as I mentioned in connection with the report of the executive committee, there was some doubt as to how that co-operation could be made effective. Mrs. Kelley's remarks have indicated one line of helpful progress, and I, therefore, move that these suggestions be transmitted to the executive committee with our approval, and with a request that that committee take steps to give them given force and effect.

The motion was seconded and carried.

Dr. Horace E. Flack, chairman of the committee on municipal reference libraries and archives, presented the report of that committee.

Report of Committee on Municipal Reference Libraries[1]

On January 1, 1907, the department of legislative reference of Baltimore was organized, this being the first municipal reference department or library established in the United States. The following year, the National Municipal League placed the subject of municipal reference libraries on the program of the Pittsburgh meeting and the chairman of your present committee presented a paper describing the work of such libraries. The following year, 1909, the league, recognizing their value and importance, appointed a committee to investigate the subject and make recommendations as to the organization of such libraries. This committee consisted of:

Dr. William H. Allen, of the New York bureau of municipal research;

Milton J. Foreman, of the Chicago city council;

Horace E. Deming, chairman of the executive committee of the National Municipal League;

George Godard, State librarian of Connecticut;

Clarence B. Lester, Legislative reference librarian of New York state (now with the Wisconsin legislative reference library);

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. iii, p. 222.

Dr. Charles McCarthy, Legislative reference librarian of Wisconsin;

Judge Oscar Leser, of the Maryland state tax commission (at that time president of the appeal tax court of Baltimore);

Thomas L. Montgomery, State librarian of Pennsylvania;

Prof. Charles E. Merriam, University of Chicago and a member of the city council;

Robert Treat Paine, Jr., of Boston; and the present chairman of your committee on this subject, who was also the chairman of that committee.

After a thorough investigation of the subject, the committee submitted its report at the meeting of the league in Buffalo, November, 1910. As that report has been practically exhausted, it seems well to include in this report the recommendations made by that committee, which are as follows:

1. That municipal reference libraries should be established in all large cities.
2. That as a general rule such libraries should be under the control of the public library.
3. That such libraries should be located in the city hall where feasible.
4. That the qualifications for the head of such a library should be a liberal education, with special training in political science, economics, municipal government, and methods of organization and administration, and he should be selected for merit alone.
5. That the head of the municipal reference library be selected by that method which, in the particular city, will, under the local conditions there prevailing, tend most completely to eliminate political considerations. In some cities, the most satisfactory results may be obtained by lodging the appointing power with the public librarian or library trustees. In other cities, conditions may make it advisable to have appointment made by a select, impartial and non-political board.
6. That the municipal reference library be made the agency for the exchange of municipal documents.
7. That the functions of the library should not be restricted to any particular phase of work so long as that work relates only to the collecting, collating, compiling and disseminating of data or information. It will also be one of the functions of the library to aid in the drafting of ordinances.

Copies of this report were sent by the committee to the mayors and public libraries of the larger cities, with a letter calling attention to the importance of the subject.

Your committee also submitted a brief report at the Toronto meeting of the league last November. In the October, 1913, number of the National Municipal Review, there was an article by Earl W. Crecraft describing the work of municipal reference libraries and also containing the recommendations made by your committee in its 1910 report. Through the secretary's office your committee the past spring sent letters to the mayors of about one hundred and twenty (120) of the leading cities of the United States, together with a reprint of the article by Mr. Crecraft. In this letter, the importance of such libraries was emphasized and the co-operation of your committee offered in securing the establishment of similar libraries in the cities to which letters were sent. The results have justified the efforts of the league, for municipal reference libraries are now established in the following cities:

New York.
Chicago.
Philadelphia.
St. Louis.
Cleveland.
Baltimore.
Pittsburgh.
Milwaukee.
Cincinnati.
Minneapolis.
Kansas City, Missouri.
Portland, Oregon.
Oakland
Toronto.

Almost without exception, the libraries have been organized along the lines suggested by your committee.

In addition to the above purely municipal reference libraries, somewhat similar work is done by statistical bureaus or the public libraries in the following cities:

Boston.
Newark.
Grand Rapids.
Fort Wayne.

Hartford, Connecticut, will probably establish a library in the new municipal building, to be occupied some time next year. The question is also being given serious consideration in St. Paul, Springfield, Massachusetts, Syracuse, Louisville and Salt Lake City and it is quite likely that within the next year, other cities will establish libraries.

The Universities of Illinois, Wisconsin, Kansas, Minnesota, Washington, California, Michigan, and possibly others, have municipal reference bureaus for the cities of their respective states. Such bureaus should not, however, take the place of the local municipal reference libraries, except for the smaller cities. The university bureau would, of course, co-operate with the local bureau.

A system of co-operation between the several libraries has been in effect for some time and this has worked to the great advantage of the respective departments. The greater the number of such libraries, however, the greater the possibilities for co-operation in this work and your committee expresses the hope that within the very near future, all the important cities of the United States will have such libraries.

In conclusion, your committee gives its endorsement to the recommendations contained in the report made by the committee in 1910 and cannot urge too strongly that in making provision for municipal reference libraries an adequate appropriation be made for their maintenance and that only those of scientific training be placed in charge of them and that they be so organized as to prevent political interference.

Respectfully submitted,
Horace E. Flack,
Chairman.[1]

Mr. Arthur W. Dunn, secretary of the committee on civic education, presented the report of that committee.

Abstract of the Report of Arthur W. Dunn, Secretary of the Committee on Civic Education, on the Work of His Committee During the Past Year

Mr. Dunn referred to the remarkable development of democracy, and of devices to give more of the people a more direct control over their government. There has been a traditional relation, in a democracy, between good government and education. The real safeguard of democracy is not in its devices for self-government, but in the fitness of the people to use these devices. Never before has there been such urgent demand for a civically educated people as there is in our country to-day. Those who seek to improve devices build on crumbling sand unless they lay their foundations deep with an effective civic education.

A new interest has been developing in civic education coincident with the development of democracy; but it is a civic education with a new content, new aims, and new methods. The aim of civic education is no longer merely to give a fund of information about our governmental devices; but to reach the motive, the will, the interest, the judgment, the initiative of the citizen, and to cultivate in him the essential qualities of good citizenship. In this alone will be found a real bulwark for democracy.

Civic education is tending to become more of a continuous process, beginning in early childhood and extending through adult life. Its means consist not merely of a course in "civics" somewhere in the school course, but include the entire work of the school and innumerable agencies outside of the school, both for youth and adults. The problem of civic education has therefore developed into a large number of problems, depending partly on the agencies involved, but more particularly upon the characteristics and interests and aims of the several groups undergoing the process of education. The methods of civic training are no longer merely those of instruction, but those by which qualities and habits of good citizenship may be developed.

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[1] *Members of Committee:* Horace E. Flack, Hon. Thomas Lynch Montgomery; Miss Edith Tobitt, Librarian, Omaha Public Library; Dr. Henry J. Harris, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.; Dr. Robert H. Whitten, Librarian, Public Service Commission, New York City.

While there are thus clearly marked tendencies in civic education to-day, they are only tendencies. School authorities and others interested in the problem are still groping for the most effective means of civic education; assuming that they really have an interest in it at all, which is by no means universal.

It was in view of this situation—the flooding tide of democracy, the urgent need for a broad and effective civic education, the ripeness of the situation—and especially because of the necessary interest of the league in a civic education that will be a real bulwark to the very things for which the league is striving, that the committee on civic education began, a year ago, a constructive program for the promotion of such education by any means that could be discovered in the experience of anyone. The central feature of the plan was the development of a clearing house for the gathering and dissemination of information and ideas bearing on the problem.

By far the most important result of the work of the committee has been the affiliation with the federal bureau of education. In regard to this the speaker said: "It has made possible the realization of the clearing house function to a degree that would have been impossible for us alone. We are to-day in personal touch with thousands of individuals and agencies in all parts of the country, where we should have reached only hundreds on our own resources. School authorities and others respond more universally and more freely than they would to the appeals of a private agency alone. Private organizations that show a reluctance to work through the channels of another self-appointed private organization, show no such reluctance in the case of the bureau of education. We have daily opportunity for conference with the expert heads of other divisions of the bureau, such as the divisions of higher education, rural education, vocational education, etc. Your committee began publishing, a year ago, a series of leaflets which were issued as funds were available in small editions to a very imperfect mailing list. Under the arrangement with the bureau it has now established a regular series of publications on the subject of civic education that are distributed to any group or groups that it may be desired to reach."

This, however, is only the machinery for accomplishing the task of the committee. The speaker therefore proceeded to outline in some detail the various problems that have been faced, their relations to each other, and the means by which they have been attacked. He mentioned, in particular, the work for a suitable type of civic training for elementary schools, the high school problem, the civic aspects of vocational education, the adaptation of civic education to the needs of rural schools and communities, the civic education of the adult immigrant, and the stimulation of public discussion and debate both for youth and adults through social and community centers and by other means. In some lines of endeavor progress has been positive and definite, in other lines it is still necessarily negative, though none the less progress.

A significant phase of the work is the extent to which various organizations have been led to co-operate through the bureau for the solution of the particular aspects of the problem of civic education in which they are especially interested, thus resulting in co-ordination of hitherto independent efforts.

Camillus G. Kidder, Esq., chairman of the committee on the liquor problem, presented the report of that committee.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON LIQUOR PROBLEM[1]

At the Toronto meeting last year it was decided that the committee might profitably allow its activities to remain in abeyance by reason of the times.

It had been determined that the first and most important topic to be taken up is that of the licensing question, and that a proper treatment of this would require the services of trained experts, who should be properly compensated, and for this the funds were not then, and are not now, readily forthcoming.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 233.

During the year, Mr. Koren, secretary of the committee, has written two valuable articles for the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, and, in so far as the chairman is aware, the views which he there expresses meet with the hearty approval of the other members of the committee.

It should be remembered that our committee has determined to work with the American section of the International committee, of which section ex-president Taft is chairman. This International committee, founded under the auspices of Russia, has held two meetings in Paris, which Mr. Koren attended at large personal sacrifice and expense to himself. The war has paralyzed the work of this committee; but there has arisen the incidental benefit of the abandonment by the Russian government of its manufacture and sale of vodka, involving a loss in revenue of 700 million rubles. At this writing a report comes from Petrograd that the sale of all distilled liquors has been forbidden during the war.

Very probably in Russia, under the present stress, this measure of absolute prohibition may be enforced. In this country there appears to be a recrudescence of the movement towards state-wide prohibition. The recent elections have so resulted in several of the states. In the opinion of the writer, this is not the true solution of the liquor problem and the action, from time to time, of particular states, is not likely to leave any permanent impression.

In short, your committee reports that the field has been mapped out; but that, except as above noted, its activities have been suspended during the past year.

Respectfully submitted.
For the Committee,
C. G. KIDDER,
Chairman.

The report of the committee on franchises, Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, chairman, was then presented.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON MUNICIPAL FRANCHISES[1]

Your committee on franchises begs leave to submit the following report:

In our report last year we took the ground that the movement for exclusive state regulation of public utilities was in danger of being carried too far and that the proper solution of the problem of control was to be found in a carefully coordinated co-operation between state and local authorities rather than in exclusive regulation by either. The opinions we expressed in that report have been strengthened by a continued study of the experience of the country and we now desire to lay especial emphasis upon the machinery which should be provided for the exercise of local powers of control. Local public service commissions, with complete technical equipment, exist in very few cities. In other cities a department or bureau of public utilities or franchises has been established, while in still others special officers have been appointed for the inspection and control of particular utilities. In most cities, however, no adequate machinery has yet been provided for the enforcement of franchise obligations, the handling of complaints, the continuous observation of service, the preparation of regulatory ordinances, the supervision of new construction work, the drafting or critical examination of proposed franchise grants, and the representation of the city's interests in proceedings before state regulatory bodies. In our opinion it is extremely important that every city of any considerable size should establish and maintain such machinery. Obviously, the exact nature of the machinery will depend to a considerable extent upon the number of utilities municipally owned as well as upon the powers of control over privately owned utilities enjoyed by any particular city. Where local control is the norm, a large city cannot well get along without a commission or department having the elaborate powers and organization of a public service commission. Where state control is the norm and the power of local regulation is reduced to the minimum, the city should nevertheless have an expert official, department or bureau charged with the observation of the local utilities, the formulation of complaints affecting the interests of the city, the preparation of evidence regarding them and the presentation of the city's case before the state commission. We are convinced that virile and intelligent representation of the municipalities in proceedings before the state commissions will not only tend to keep alive local public interest and to increase capacity for local self-government, but will also be a salutary check upon the state commissions themselves. We are satisfied that much of the good in state regulation will be lost unless cases before the state commission are strongly contested and great publicity given to the proceedings of the commission. So long as the public service corporations are permitted to present their valuations and practically make out their own cases, the tendency of the state commissions will naturally be to take the corporation point of view. It will be unsafe to depend solely upon the experts of the state commission, a semi-neutral and semi-judicial body, often not directly responsible to the people interested in the rates and service of a local utility, to offset the elaborate presentation of facts and fancies by the utility itself. In other words, if the cities which are subject to state regulation are to get a square deal before a state commission, they will have to fight for it and they cannot do so effectively unless they have a permanent organ of government in continuous service for this purpose.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 13.

Delos F. Wilcox,
Chairman.

The report of the committee on municipal courts, Hon. Harry Olson, chairman, was summarized by the secretary. Copies of this report can be had of the secretary of the committee, Herbert Harley, Esq., 29 So. La Salle street, Chicago.

Report of Committee on Municipal Courts

Your committee on municipal courts made a preliminary report at the Toronto meeting setting forth a general idea of the nature of the model municipal court. Since that time the committee, acting in conjunction with the American Judicature Society, has devoted a great deal of time and study to the subject. The draftsmen of the latter organization have been available for this work and the product of their labors has been submitted to the council of that society, from which valuable criticisms have been received. The views of the committee were given concrete form in an act to establish a model court for a metropolitan district. The act is known as Bulletin IV of the American Judicature Society.[1]

Your committee therefore reports at this time very briefly its position on many phases of the subject, and refers to Bulletin IV for details.

Your committee finds that a present great need is for the unification of all the courts of a state into a single great court, of which all tribunals shall be branches, departments, or divisions; the business as well as the judicial administration should be thoroughly organized; and there should be improved methods for the selection of judges and ministerial agents of the courts.

The first step should be unification of all existing tribunals within the district into one metropolitan court, which should possess all the jurisdiction exercised by the several separate tribunals now occupying the county or counties composing the metropolitan district. It should possess authority to create by rules of court, subject to the power of the legislature to intervene, the procedure of its several divisions.

The power to make and alter procedural rules and administrative orders should be vested in a central body to be known as the judicial council or executive board, which body should comprise the chief justice and the presiding justices of divisions.

In the larger cities there should be two classes of judges known as senior and junior classes to correspond approximately with the present judges of appellate and complete trial jurisdiction on the one hand, and to the judges of limited jurisdiction on the other hand.

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[1] 29 So. LaSalle street, Chicago.

All judges of the court should possess complete and equal judicial powers with respect to the trial of causes, the distinctions between junior and senior judges existing largely for the sake of equitably apportioning salaries.

There should be permanent divisions of the court in order to permit of specialization on the part of the judges.

In the assignment of judges the chief justice should exercise large powers under rules of court subject to reasonable limitation on the part of presiding justices of divisions, and within divisions the assignment of judges to particular duties should be by the respective presiding justices.

No cause should fail by reason of being commenced in the wrong division, but should be transferred to the proper division.

There should be a thorough system of recording data under the supervision of the chief justice; these data should be classified under such heads as (1) judicial, (2) efficiency of personnel, (3) social, (4) criminal, (5) financial; and a complete report should be published annually or semi-annually.

There should be a single clerk's office and the clerk should be selected by the judicial council and hold at their pleasure.

Judicial salaries should depend in some degree upon length of service and there should be pensions for judges who have served a certain number of years and attained a certain age unfitting them for further service on the bench or at the bar.

The question of the selection of judges is second only to the question of unification, organization, and administrative control, and of necessity does not require dogmatic statement because the organization of such a court and its successful operation do not depend upon any particular form of selection and tenure; in states in which judges are appointed, if that method of selection is affording satisfaction, we recommend that it be adhered to.

There is, however, at present so much dissatisfaction with existing elective methods as applied to a large city that it is timely to study the situation and endeavor to devise some method which will afford character, judicial talent, and legal experience for the bench, and encourage faith in the long tenure for fit judges, so that lawyers assuming judicial service will look forward to a judicial career with suitable reward in position and pay. The problem of tenure is that of retaining indefinitely judges whose service is satisfactory and of getting rid of all others with a minimum of exertion and without risk of sacrificing good material.

The system whereby the entire electorate participates in the choice of every judge was adopted at a time when conditions were primitive. It rests squarely on the assumption that voters will exercise conscious choice based upon adequate information. In a metropolitan district it is utterly unreasonable to expect the fulfillment of this theory. It imposes upon the voter a greater burden than can be met within human limitations.

When the party convention system was in vogue the responsibility for good judicial nominations rested upon party leaders; these party leaders were not directly responsible for the administration of justice, nor were they directly amenable to public opinion, but there was a measure of responsibility and the results were frequently very good. Under direct nominations there is no responsibility devolving upon any ascertainable group or body and the element of blind chance is exalted to the highest place. The result is that the least desirable element of the bar is encouraged, and the expense of candidacy is absurdly high.

The element of chance makes tenure uncertain, so that judicial service is likely to imply serious personal sacrifice on the part of judges best qualified to serve when compared with private practice. When public service is thus penalized the public's business is certain to suffer. Judges are experts whose relative qualifications can be judged in the first instance only by the few who are in a position to know the nature of the position and the characteristics of aspirants.

The committee is heartily in accord with the principle of the short ballot as applied to the selection of judges in metropolitan districts; it implies expert selection by some person or group of persons who are directly charged with the due administration of justice. Such person or persons should be chosen directly by the entire electorate for a moderate term under an improved form of ballot. The fewer the number of such persons the more conspicuous the position, resulting in the electorate informing themselves of the character of candidates thoroughly in inverse ratio to the number of candidates. The fewer persons who exercise this power of selection by delegation of the electorate, the more readily accountable will this power be to the people generally.

Expert selection, which is only another name for appointment, does not necessarily imply life tenure. Judges who are appointed may be submitted to the electorate for a vote as to whether they shall be continued in office after a reasonable probationary period, and if so continued should not be subjected to a second referendum for a considerable period. A second endorsement should mean tenure for a still longer period. If the first submission were after three years' service, the second after six years' service, and the third after nine years' service, the people should have the same opportunity for rejection of a judge which they now have, that is, three votes in 18 years. But the fact that the judge so submitted would be running against his own record, and not against a field of aspirants, each interested in perverting and misrepresenting the character of his services, should obviate in large measure the defects now attributable to the popular vote.

If appointment is by the chief justice it appears practicable to limit his choice to an eligible list, which list should contain for every division of the court twice as many names as there are positions—such list could well be made up by the judicial council, so that the chief justice in appointing to fill vacancies would be held to selection from a list expertly made before the vacancy occurred and kept before the public constantly.

A chief justice exercising this power should serve for a comparatively brief term, four or six years, and should be permitted, upon resigning as chief justice, or being supplanted at election, to become an associate judge of the court, thus giving him a judicial career and removing him from partisan allegiance from his first election.

The summary of the report was then open for discussion.

Mr. Weil: I would like to make just one observation. There is one alternative,—another method of filling the positions other than has been suggested by Mr. Woodruff. It is the establishment in a state of an expert board for the purpose of appointing to all the judicial positions in the state, a board consisting of the representatives of all political parties, which is to be composed either of judges or lawyers of recognized ability throughout the state, and they must take no office, or be elected to office during their terms upon this commission. I have forgotten now who made it. I merely call it to your attention without expressing any opinion of it at all.

Mr. Burnham: I do think that a method of juggling up the names in a hat and selecting them by chance is just as effective as the present method. I do not look with so much fear upon the method handed out in the report as some people do. I should rather trust one person to select his colleagues. Still it is open to very considerable danger in the city.

Mr. Foulke: The chair would venture to suggest that the evil of the long ballot would not be entirely cured even by providing that one judge be elected for the municipal court, he to elect his colleagues. The bulk of the candidates are not judges. You will still ordinarily elect that one man by the party system just the same as you do now. On the other hand, it seems to me it ought to be very carefully considered, whether it is wise to place in the hands of the judges the power of partisanship. We generally think it is not wise. The power is one which is nearly always followed by political influence, pulling and hauling to get office. That is one of the things judges ought to be kept free from. We want to be very careful and consider whether we want to extend to the judgeship what is essentially a political power.

Mr. Hoag: If the city manager plan is good, and this league seems to think it is, would it not be wise also to have the city council nominate the judges? They would be picked representatives of the people. That would be an appointing of the judges by a representative body of small numbers.

Mr. Woodruff: I might say for Mr. Hoag's argument that in some of the commission governed cities the municipal judges to hear and determine causes arising out of the violation of local ordinances and state laws of local application are selected by the commission, and so far as I have heard it has given pretty general satisfaction. That is not a universal practice in commission government cities, but it is a precedent in favor of Mr. Hoag's suggestion.

Mr. Weil: Our recent experience in the election in Pennsylvania might be of some value. Our legislature passed a non-partisan ballot law with reference to the judgeships, and they are no longer allowed to be placed upon the regular party tickets. They are, in consequence, upon all the tickets practically, and are backed by non-partisan political organizations. We had an election in November for supreme court judge under this new act. The result has been found in actual experience that the candidates actively engaged in the campaign for election. Each one of them had his own political organization, or organization furthering his election, canvassing the state for the purpose of securing votes, some of them entering into the campaign directly by interviewing the voters and soliciting their votes, others had organizations from the bar associations, furthering their candidacy. But we did not like the method. It did not seem to us perfectly right that a man aspiring for high office such as the judgeship of the supreme court of the state should personally actively engage in a campaign for election. One of the candidates said to me,—"Why, this new law, while theoretically it is all right, simply compels us to get into the political campaign." He said, "I don't want to engage in this campaign. I would rather not. I don't feel it is becoming to enter into this contest," but he said, "What could I do? *If I don't* have such an organization, don't take a part, there is no chance for my election. I must have an organization to support it." He had to do it because the others were doing the same thing. If judges are to be elected at all we must find some other method or plan by which they can be elected. Personally from this last experience I am in my mind fully convinced that after all the appointive system for the judges is the one that must be followed.

Mr. Hart: I would like to make a suggestion with regard to somewhat greater co-operation between the national civic bodies in this country in their meetings. The National Conference of Charities and Corrections combines together in one meeting a wide variety of committees interested in various subjects.

It occurred to me, and I feel it has occurred to others that special efforts might be made to see whether or not it would be feasible to have these various organizations agree upon some common meeting place, some common general meetings, so that all of us could get the advantage of the good things. I do not know, Mr. President, whether or not this is a matter that ought to be referred to a special committee, to determine the time and place. But I simply bring up the suggestion to inquire whether or not some steps might not be taken in that way.

Mr. Foulke: That matter, I think, could be properly considered by the executive committee. We had joint meetings of this league with the American Civic Association for awhile.

Mr. Hart: I move that the executive committee be requested by this body to communicate with other organizations having a somewhat similar purpose, with a view to ascertaining whether or not a greater co-operation as to the time and place of the meetings may not be secured between this organization and others.

The motion was seconded.

Mr. Kidder: I move to amend that by saying that the question of co-operation with other associations in regard to the fixing of dates and places for the meetings be taken under consideration by the executive committee.

The amendment was accepted.

Mr. McClintock: I know the time the convention met in Pittsburgh, we got into difficulty in the matter of interference of meetings, one wanted to go to one, and had to forego the other. That was the reason why the joint convention was dispensed with,—the interference of the work of one association with that of the other.

Lieutenant Shaw: Is it not so that the League of American Municipalities is composed of city officials? This league while not composed of city officials, accepts them as delegates. Will it not be almost impossible to reconcile those two facts?

Mr. Hart: I would say in further explanation of my motion, I had in mind to ask the committee to take up the question of whether or not they could arrange their meetings at near enough places so that people who come from a distance could attend the various meetings. It seemed to some of the members of the league who have mentioned it that it might be well for these various leagues to communicate with each other before announcing the dates, in order that they might dovetail them.

The motion as amended was carried.

Meeting adjourned.

Baltimore City Club, Thursday, November 19, 1914, 1 p. m.

Municipal Accounting and Budgets

The room originally arranged for this luncheon being insufficient to accommodate the number desiring to attend, tables were arranged in the main dining room for 40 persons, the number being later increased to 60 when the speaking began. At the head table, besides the chairman, Mr. Burnham, the principal guests included the mayor of Baltimore, the city comptroller, the city register, the president of the board of estimate, the deputy comptroller, and the city engineer, comprising the board of estimate which has nearly all the administrative power of the city government of Baltimore, and which prepares the annual budget covering the proposed expenditures for all departments.

The chairman, by request, gave a brief description of the work which the National Municipal League has done during the past 15 years relating to the improvement of municipal accounting methods and the standardization of budgets. He then called upon Harvey S. Chase, a member of the league's committee, who is at present installing uniform classifications and a new budgetary system for the city of Baltimore. Mr. Chase described what is proposed to be done and emphasized the importance of this work for the citizens of Baltimore and pointed out the significant part which the National Municipal League has played in initiating uniformity of budget classification, which began in 1900 at Newton, Massachusetts, and which has now extended all over the country. This extension has been due, in great part, to the United States census by the work in the division under the administration of

Dr. L. G. Powers. Mr. Chase asked Dr. Powers to amplify his own remarks, which he did at considerable length, explaining some of the difficulties which the census had encountered and overcome in its work in standardization and classification of municipal accounts. He pointed out various dangers which are likely to arise in changing a system of "cash accounts" into the more important, but also relatively more complex, system of "accrual accounts."

Dr. Powers emphasized the unfortunate experience of certain cities which had not handled accrual accounts safely on the revenue side, and a lively discussion was entered into through questions by Mayor Preston, Mr. Burnham, Mr. Chase, and others, with the result that half an hour or more was spent in exchanging questions and answers upon this most important point of municipal accounting theory, which, in Baltimore, is about to become municipal accounting practice. The members of the board of estimate were much interested in this discussion and remained at the luncheon an hour longer than they had intended to stay when they came.

After the luncheon the board of estimate had a conference with Mr. Chase at the city hall and decided unanimously to adopt, immediately, for the city budget now in course of preparation, the uniform classifications which were so strongly recommended at the round-table discussion.

This conclusion is an eminently satisfactory one, both for the city of Baltimore and for the National Municipal League, and it shows conclusively that practical results do immediately follow a meeting of the league, when some point of specific importance is brought up and discussed intelligently at a round-table conference.

CIVIC EDUCATION

Another luncheon conference was held at the same time in the Baltimore City Club to discuss the report of Arthur W. Dunn, secretary of the committee on civic education, presented at the morning session. Over this Hon. P. P. Claxton, federal commissioner of education, presided. The disscusion emphasized the conclusions reached by Mr. Dunn and served to emphasize the work which he had accomplished in arousing very general interest throughout the country in the whole subject of civic education from the league's point of view, and in assisting superintendents and others charged with responsibility in formulating their local policies. Mr. Dunn's report, with a large amount of additional matter, will be incorporated in the report of the commissioner of education.

Those desiring further information concerning the work of this committee are recommended to communicate directly with Arthur W. Dunn, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON SESSION

Arundell Club, November 19, 1914, 3 p. m.

Miss Jane Addams, vice president, in the chair.

In opening the meeting Miss Addams said: "It is well for the National Municipal League to concern itself with such affairs of the city as the relation of the city to the children, also the basic question of the food supply. It gives me great pleasure to be the presiding officer at this afternoon's session, which it seems to me must be one of the most genuine sessions of the league, if it lives up to our expectations."

Professor Clyde L. King of the University of Pennsylvania, chairman of the committee on the relation of the city to the food supply, presented the report of his committee which was discussed at some length and which will be published separately.

Mrs. Florence Kelley then spoke on "The Children of Our City." Her address will be published in the April issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.

MISS ADDAMS: Miss Lathrop is here, the chief of the Federal Children's Bureau. I am sure we will be glad to hear her if she will speak on the subject of the mortality of children in cities.

Miss Lathrop: I feel very much an amateur on this subject when listening to a *bona fide* mother like Mrs. Kelley. As she spoke I thought of the available floor space entirely free from those defects where children can play and eliminate the laundry question entirely—150 to 250 feet above the street. They are the tops of the houses.

Mrs. Kelley: Oh, the laundry is there, too.

Miss Lathrop: I see nothing before Mrs. Kelley but to invent paper clothing. The great Englishman, Newsholme, said that infant mortality is the greatest index that we possess to infant welfare, and if children are well born and well reared the deaths of which she spoke, 300,000 at less than a year old, would be greatly reduced. What more could we ask of the civilization of any community?

Mrs. Charles A. Beard of New York then presented a paper on "Woman's Work for the City," which will be published in the April issue of the National Municipal Review.

Thursday Evening Session

McCoy Hall, Thursday, November 19, 1914, 8 p. m.

President Foulke in the chair.

The first speaker was Miss Jane Addams, a vice president of the league on "The Social Activities of the City," which will be published in the April issue.

Miss Addams was followed by the Hon. John M. Eshleman, president of the railroad commission of California and lieutenant-governor-elect of that state. He spoke briefly and eloquently with regard to what had been accomplished under the administration of Governor Johnson to make municipal life better worth living in California.

President A. Lawrence Lowell of Harvard, a vice president of the National Municipal League, spoke on "Administrative Experts in Municipal Government." (See p. 26.)

President Lowell was followed by Miss Frances A. Kellor, vice president of the committee for immigrants in America, on "Unemployment in Our Cities." (See p. 69.)

Friday Morning Session.

Hotel Emerson, November 20, 1914, 10 p. m.

Robert Treat Paine, of Boston, in the chair.

Mr. Paine: The league has in a sense two sides,—the theoretical and the practical. We are often as students more interested in the form of government, the machinery; but the league started because of the effort of good men to try to get reform practically started in one city after another. The meeting of those problems, and coming together caused the creation of the National Municipal League. We have often seen reform in one city after another come to the top and after a brief success fall back. We have wondered what was the best method to pursue. The solution of the different problems in different cities have often been conflicting.

Some years ago the league met in Pittsburgh, and some of the Pittsburghers are good enough to say they almost from that time trace the revived life in civic spirit which has led to a marked reform in their government. One of the leaders of that revival in Pittsburgh is the chairman of our committee on political methods, A. Leo Weil. Mr. Weil's preliminary report has been printed.[1]

This paper which is interesting in its statement of problem and administration will be the subject of discussion at the round table luncheon at one o'clock, where Mr. Bonaparte will preside.

Mr. McClintock, of Pittsburgh: I

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[1] Copies of this report may be had of Mr. Weil at his Pittsburgh address: The Frick Building.—Editor.

move the adoption of the following resolution:

> The National Municipal League wishes to place on record its grateful appreciation of the courtesies and whole-hearted hospitality received from the people of Baltimore. The local interest in the work of the league, manifested on the occasion of its first meeting here in 1896, has never ceased, and now again, after an interval of 18 years, the open door and cordial welcome have again been extended to the league for this its second annual conference held in Baltimore.
>
> For all this, we return our sincere thanks, and also to the press of the city for their excellent reports of our proceedings.
>
> We wish especially to thank the Arundell Club and City Club for their courtesies and the use of their quarters for meetings of the league.

The motion was unanimously carried.

Mr. Paine: We have been interested in methods and machinery of government. It seems to go by waves. What started at Galveston was changed by Des Moines,—changed in form. What was applicable a dozen years ago is not applicable to-day. It seems as if not the commission form, but one commission-manager form of government was the wisest for immediate adoption. It depends a good deal upon the locality, upon the spirit of the place, the personnel of those who carry it out, whether the new form succeeds as well as its advocates hope, whether that form is given a good send-off. Sometimes a plan is given a good send-off and fails because it starts either in the wrong place, or under wrong management. The form of government started in Galveston, as in Dayton, is a result of a calamity. In Dayton it is under a management which seems to promise to make good. As far as we know it has hitherto made good. Under Mr. Waite's leadership it is going to lead the cities of this country in establishing new forms of government to adopt this plan, and it is desirable that we should hear from him as to not only the plan itself, and his experience with it, but those things which are in a sense controversial,—as to the things done, the working out of the plan. So it is with great pleasure, with eager anticipation that we look forward to hearing from Mr. Waite.

I have great pleasure in presenting Henry M. Waite, city manager of Dayton, Ohio.

Mr. Waite then read his paper on the commission-manager form of municipal government as it has worked out in Dayton (see p. 40), where also the discussion of it is summarized.

Mr. Paine: We have asked Mr. Addison L. Winship of Boston to tell us what the civic secretaries' committee is doing. The league started that a few years ago. Mr. Winship has been the chairman of our committee. He is a moving force in the Boston city club, which is one of the biggest city clubs in America or in the world. It is perhaps possible to say that without Mr. Winship that great club never could have succeeded in accomplishing its purpose of welding together all kinds of people in Boston, and becoming a guiding force.

Mr. Winship: Three years ago, when we commenced to meet together,—the civic secretaries, the secretaries of city clubs, and all sorts of civic organizations, it became immediately apparent that there could be a plan formulated by which we could be of great assistance to the league and to each other. We determined that it was a good thing to do,—to collect and to exchange the literature of the various organizations. We have held these meetings for three years, and we have received a great deal of encouragement. We have had expressions of the opinions of the secretaries, of the officers of these organizations, of their workings and results, and what methods might be introduced to promote greater interest and effectiveness in the various communities. The chairman the first year of the organization was Elliot H. Goodwin, now of Washington. Under him the plan was formulated into a definite shape, and Mr. Ihlder acted as secretary, and he at that time conducted a correspondence throughout the entire country. We enrolled a membership of perhaps 50 or 52. The value of the plan was demonstrated that year. We have been working to increase interest and to broaden out the work, the value of the work of a civic secretary. That work if it is conducted alone, without conference with others, is liable to get into a rut, to be single in its purpose, without the benefit of the knowledge of what other associations are doing. If by co-operation it can be increased and handled effectively, we believe that much good can be accomplished.

In the Boston city club we have accomplished, I believe thoroughly, something that is of very great value to the community. It has been done in a rather unusual sort of a way. In the early part of the organization, some 300 invitations were sent to the business men and professional men of Boston. From those we received about 50 replies. For two years we worked upon them, trying to arouse the interest of the citizens and of the people, and at the end of two years we had secured a membership of a little over 300. Another year after meetings at hotels and restaurants and offices, we decided to lease a building, and for that purpose we borrowed the sum of $25,000. A membership of 600 was then enrolled. We immediately spent $35,000 in preparing that building for occupancy. From that time through the effective management of the president of the club and his counselors it has had nothing in the nature of a set-back. The membership grew from 600 to 1,000. Then the limit was raised to 1,500,—to 2,000,—to 2,500, and then to 3,000, and then 200 more. Then there came a time when our waiting list grew from 600 to 1,400. So we raised our limit to 4,000, and then again to 4,500. A little before we had reached that number, it became evident that there must be a real club house, a home for the activities of the organization, so the matter was canvassed,—a building committee was formed, and after mature deliberation careful and conservative consideration of the financial problems involved, the purchase of a large piece of property, amounting to $230,000 was consummated. Then plans were made for a building to cost over $600,000, and the furnishings carrying the cost up over $900,000. Then came the question of financing that rather stupendous proposition. That was a very serious question. To show the value of efficient organization of the club, the value of the interest that had been aroused, it was found possible, although much to the surprise of some of the vouchers, that we could raise $400,000 among the membership of the club without any security in the shape of a mortgage, simply by giving the club's notes. Then we issued 5 per cent debentures for five years.

The $25,000 that we had borrowed at first was retired by the club. All this time we had accomplished a little from the profits,—an unusual thing for a club to make profits, and we gathered for the building $100,000 to $150,000. We arranged for the rest by mortgage.

All of this was brought about through the interest of a body of men in that city whose interest had never before been aroused in that kind of an institution. I have believed that that sort of an organization is the most effective because if we can bring out in any community a group of 5,000 men and then accomplish at the same time a welding together of their opinions, we have conducted a line of betterment of civic life by educational methods.

We have brought together in that organization the officers of the city government, the officers of every organization in Boston, practically of every activity, the heads of labor organizations, and all the political bodies, the religious centres, and every interest practically in the city. They have been working together in perfect harmony. There never has been any overproportion of one element over another.

The civic secretary is the only paid officer. That secretary must be familiar with all vital matters, and be in a position to formulate public opinion for presentation to the certain committees. That has shown to me the value of paid civic secretaries, and of persons who will give their entire time to this work.

The meeting together is very essential to formulate those sources of activity, and the conferences between secretaries of all parts of the country, of the men and women who are taking those positions, is very important. That is why we believe that this adjunct to the league is a worthy one, and it will have its benefit felt in every city of the country.

I believe strongly in the city club idea. I believe to have a successful city club it must be one that will interest every citizen, all elements in the city. The successful issue of that can best be brought about by this getting together each year. I believe that this field of work, or rather this committee, should grow in numbers and in influence. I believe that it will naturally be a factor in the National Municipal League by arousing interest all over the country in what the league is trying to do. If we have from 50 to 150 active young people working on this plan it cannot help having its influence all over the country, and add to this great body and help to carry on its work.

I am very enthusiastic over the city club idea, and the possibilities of the work of civic secretaries. If what I have said has given any possible idea of what we are trying to do in the committee, I am very glad of the opportunity.

Mr. Paine: It is unfortunate that not every city has a Winship. Possibly that is the reason for our Boston city club.

We will now have the pleasure of listening to Mr. Arthur H. Swanson, of Philadelphia, who will speak to us on "The Practicability of the Merit System."

Mr. Swanson's paper is printed in full at p. 32.

Mr. Paine: That is a very interesting paper. He hits right to the practical point.

Political Methods

Baltimore City Club, Friday, November 20, 1914, 1 p. m.

The report of A. Leo Weil, Esq., chairman of the committee on political methods was made the subject of a discussion at a luncheon held in the Baltimore City Club, the Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte, presiding. The various points raised by Mr. Weil were criticised by members of the committee and by others present, and then it was recommended that all the various suggestions be referred to the committee, which has been continued for another year, for its consideration.

As stated elsewhere copies of Mr. Weil's report may be had in pamphlet form by addressing him at his Pittsburgh address, Frick Building.

Friday Afternoon Session

Hotel Emerson, Friday, November 20, 1914, 3 p. m.

Camillus G. Kidder, vice president, in the chair.

The committee on municipal program, which has been at work during the past year drafting a new model charter and home rule constitutional amendment, presented through its chairman, the Hon. William Dudley Foulke, a preliminary report dealing with the sections on the council, city manager, and civil service and efficiency board. A partial draft of a constitutional amendment was likewise presented. This latter was incomplete in that it did not deal with the limitations to be placed on the granting of powers to cities, that phase of the subject being reserved for further consideration by the committee, which has been given another year to work out its final report. In other words, the report presented this year was in the nature of a report of progress. The several sections were made the subject of discussion and the various suggestions made were referred back to the committee for consideration. The tentative drafts submitted at Baltimore have been published in pamphlet form and can be had on application to the National Municipal League at its offices in the North American Building, Philadelphia.

Civil Service Exhibit at the Baltimore Convention of the National Municipal League[1]

In recognition of the fact that the civil service forms a large and important part of municipal administration, provision was made for the formulation and collection of an exhibit that would be of educational value to the general student and observer of municipal affairs, as well as to a governmental expert engaged in the study of civil service administration.

With this general purpose in view, the Women's auxiliary of the Massachusetts civil service reform association and the Chicago and Philadelphia civil service commissions participated in the exhibit. The first of these submitted a number of charts showing the number of persons examined, passed and appointed annually; relative number of men and women appointed; the education of persons examined; and information relative to efficiency, character investigation, etc. The exhibit of the Chicago commission included charts showing the various positions in each of the services, and charts showing the method of rating efficiency and the results of such efficiency ratings.

A threefold purpose governed in the formation of the Philadelphia exhibit. First, it was deemed important that for general information the exhibit should show the method of procedure in the work of the commission and a series of eight charts was prepared, showing a complete outline of procedure beginning with the scheduling of an examination and showing the form in which schedules are issued for public information. In addition to the form of schedule, showing the title of position, the service in which the position is found, the salary, bureau and department, and the date on which the examination was to be held, a sheet of detailed information concerning certain positions on that schedule was attached. This detailed information shows the duties of the position, the qualifications required, the subjects in which the candidates will be examined, and the weights attached to each subject.

Next was shown the form of the application blank complete, including the vouchers and endorsement, and a detailed statement of the procedure, on the part of the applicant, from the time an applicant calls at the application desk to the final filing of the application; and, on the part of the office, office routine until finally disposed of after the examination has been completed.

The third item gave with considerable particularity the method of conducting the actual examination. The fourth explained the method of marking the papers; the fifth gave in complete form the regulations governing the procedure in the investigation division, giving the forms used for verification of experience statements and character investigation. Considerable importance is attached to this feature of the work of the examining division, and the procedure is outlined in detail. The remainder of these charts showed how eligible registers are established and the procedure and forms used in making provisional appointments, original appointments, promotions, transfers, reinstatements, temporary appointments and demotions. The purpose of these eight charts was, in general, to supply an answer to any question that might arise concerning the details of internal administration.

Second: For the purpose of showing in detail the actual conduct of an examination 16 examinations were selected from among the 12 services. In the police and fire services an examination for patrolman and one for hoseman was shown. These charts shows how these positions are scheduled; the forms used in the examination, both physical and mental; the method of finger-print identification; the scope of the examination; investigation of character and the establishment of the eligible lists. Another class of examinations is exemplified by a chart, showing how an examination for carpenter is conducted, explaining the method of holding the practical test, which is used in connection with skilled labor examinations. The third class of positions shown in these charts was of a higher grade of more or less technical examinations, the purpose being to place emphasis on the work of the commission in connection with higher grade examinations, showing the method of conducting both the assembled and non-assembled types for positions varying from $1,500 to $6,000 per annum. The possibility of holding competitive examinations for higher grade positions was clearly shown. The following examinations were outlined: Chief resident physician, Philadelphia general hospital, bureau of charities, $4,000 per annum; district surveyor and regulator, bureau of surveys, $4,000 per annum; architect, bureau of city property, $4,000 per annum; chief, bureau of highways, $6,000 per annum; chief engineer, bureau of water, $1,500 per annum; chief, bureau of city property, $4,300 per annum; chief, electrical bureau, $6,000 per annum; chief operator, electrical bureau, $1,700 per annum; assistant chemist, $960 per annum; principal, board of recreation, $1,200 per annum; chief engineer, city transit, $6,000 per annum; stenographer and clerk, $1,000 to $1,250 per annum; and inspector, bureau of highways, $1,200 to $1,300 per year. These charts were supplemented by a number of photographs, showing actual practical tests given in connection with examinations.

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[1] Prepared by Wilson A. Deily, Examiner, Philadelphia Civil Service Commission, in charge of exhibit.

The third feature of the exhibit consisted of eight charts intended to show the development of civil service work in Philadelphia during the entire period from March 5, 1906, to November 1, 1914, and was made up largely of graphic presentations of statistical matter relating to this subject. The following are the titles of the various charts:

1. Organization chart, Philadelphia civil service commission.
2. Chart, showing least possible number of appointments for a given number of eligibles.
3. Chart, showing annual and total number of examinations, candidates, eligibles and appointments by grades of $1,000 each from March 5, 1906, to November 1, 1914.
4. Chart, showing relation of appointments from original entrance examinations, promotion examinations, by Soldier's Exemption, and promotions without examination annually from March 5, 1906, to September 1, 1914.
5. Chart, showing comparatively, by years, the number of applications filed, persons examined, passed and appointed in the competitive class and provisional appointments from March 5, 1906, to September 1, 1914.
6. Chart, showing relation of the competitive, labor and exempt classes, September 1, 1914.
7. Chart, showing size of the various services in the competitive class with the number of positions in each, September 1, 1914.
8. Chart, showing annual appointments in non-competitive and exempt classes.

A complete set of the annual reports, a full set of examination questions used in 1913, and a set of all the forms used in the offices of the civil service commission completed the exhibit.

The exhibits of the participants were formulated with painstaking care; and, judging from the interest taken in the exhibit, it is believed that it accomplished the purpose for which it was designed.

CIVIC SECRETARIES CONFERENCE

Summary of Discussion

"Methods of Committee Work" was the first topic considered by the civic secretaries' committee at its Baltimore meeting. The subjects upon which civic committees are appointed by eleven city clubs and civic leagues were classified in a report submitted by the secretary of the committee. (A copy of this classification is appended hereto.) Discussion centered upon the value and methods of legislative committees. The point was made that a single volunteer committee can scarcely do thorough and reliable work if it is expected to pass upon all legislative measures pending upon subjects with which a civic organization is concerned, and at the same time to draft and promote the passage of the bills which the committees of the club wish to initiate.

It was suggested that the legislative functions of a civic organization might with advantage be divided as follows: The civic secretary should scrutinize all pending legislation and refer each important bill to the committee interested in that general subject for consideration. The drafting of legislation should be taken care of by a special committee of lawyers, who should embody in proper legal form, the ideas which the various committees wish to see enacted into law.

Publicity committees and their work were next discussed. The following conclusions were arrived at:

It does not seem wise to have active newspaper men on the publicity committee; since the presence of a representative of one paper is likely to antagonize the other papers. Publicity material prepared by the various committees should be issued by some single agent of the club,—either a special committee or the civic secretary,— and should be sent out with absolute impartiality to all of the local papers. Where possible, the material should be sent out in advance with release dates clearly marked on the manuscript. The question of whether material should be given out first to the evening or to the morning papers, or to each alternately should be decided after conference with the newspaper men. The advantage of illustrating reports with photographs and diagrams was touched upon.

The question of issuing a regular bulletin was next taken up. The consensus of opinion was that such bulletins are of the greatest value. Experience has proved that the bulletins are read thoroughly by large numbers of the members. They cover civic activities much more fully than do the newspaper reports. They serve to keep members actively interested in the work of the club.

The Boston city club publishes a bulletin of about 36 pages on the first day of each of eight months of the year. This bulletin contains a general review of the preceding month's activities, stenographic reports of addresses delivered before the club, and announcements. 6,000 copies are printed. The annual cost (exclusive of editorial work which is done by the regular secretarial staff) is from $4,000 to $6,000 annually. Mr. Winship, secretary of the club, believes that the bulletin has brought in over 1,000 members to the club. He has proved that the bulletin is carefully read by the members.

The Minneapolis civic and commerce association publishes a bulletin of 20 to 25 pages each month, outlining the work of the association. The Baltimore city club publishes a bulletin along the lines of the Boston publication and finds that the members are so interested that they make inquiries at once when it is delayed. The bulletin costs $1,200 a year.

The Philadelphia civic club issues eight bulletins per year containing twelve to twenty pages each. The annual cost is $700 to $800. The Philadelphia city club spends about $3,000 annually for 20 bulletins. The Baltimore woman's civic league issues about three bulletins a year at a cost of approximately $150 each. The Woman's municipal league of New York issues four 16-page bulletins and a year book at a total expenditure of $680.

The possibility of securing the pound rate for these bulletins in order to reduce mailing costs was suggested.

The relation between the paid secretary and the volunteer committee was also discussed. The central idea expressed was that whatever detailed investigation and study is required should be made by the paid worker, while the function of the committees should be to review the results of that investigation in the light of their wide experience and common sense, eliminating extreme or unwise statements, pointing out new viewpoints and finally lending their prestige and influence to securing publicity for the facts discovered and to carrying through the ends revealed as desirable by these studies.

The relation between civic organizations and public officials was next discussed. The point was made that progressive civic bodies too often put forth ideas not based upon a thorough knowledge of the historical or social facts pertinent to the problem. If civic bodies took public officials more frankly into their confidence they might avoid this difficulty and achieve better results. Representatives of several organizations told of their attempts to work *with* rather than *against* city officials. The desirability of demonstrating to the government the value of a civic innovation like public baths or open air schools by establishing such institutions temporarily as examples to the municipality was brought out.

It was felt by some that certain civic organizations, such as voters' leagues, cannot in the nature of things, co-operate with public officials, but must hold themselves aloof in order to be impartial. The belief was also stated that efficient publicity may often force unwilling officials to do their duty.

The proper functions of different types of civic organizations was another topic of discussion. It was urged that city clubs ought not to take militant stands upon public questions, but should serve solely as sources of reliable civic information and forums for discussion. Some of the members felt that voters' leagues ought to take over all of the militant civic functions, using their recommendations of candidates as a club to compel endorsement of progressive measures by the officials, and that city clubs should confine themselves to discussion. Other members urged that certain western city clubs had successfully combined the provision of a civic forum and of a social club with the active support and opposition of definite measures.

The success of the Pittsburgh voters' league in hunting out corruption, preventing fraud and righting evil conditions was instanced as an example of the possibilities of this type of organization. It was maintained that the close corporation form of organization gave this league a vigor and power impossible to a city club with its open and general membership.

Arrangements were made at the meetings for continuing the civic secretaries' committees, for enlarging its usefulness and for holding a session next year.

Hornell Hart,
Chairman.

CLASSIFICATION OF COMMITTEES MAINTAINED BY ELEVEN CIVIC ORGANIZATIONS

A. *General Committees*
  - Legislation (7).
  - Statistics and publicity (3).
  - Legal advisers (1).

B. *City Administrations*
  - Municipal affairs (5).
  - Municipal finances (7).
  - City purchases and contracts (2).

C. *County Administrations* (2)

D. *State and Federal Matters*
  - Postal service (3).
  - State constitution (2).
  - Direct legislation (1).

E. *Political Reforms*
  - Charter revision (7).
  - Civil service (5).
  - Short ballot (2).
  - Political nominations and elections (3).
  - Consolidation of city and county (1).

F. *Traffic Facilities*
  - Traffic problems in general (7).
  - Streets (7).
  - Bridges and viaducts (5).
  - Rivers and harbors (6).
  - Good roads (1).

G. *Public Utilities*
  - In general (3).
  - Gas (2).
  - Electricity (2).
  - Telephones (2).
  - Transportation (3).
  - Municipal newspapers (1).

H. *City Planning* (5)

I. *Education and Schools*
  - Education in general (8).
  - Vocational guidance (1).
  - Industrial education (1).

J. *Health Matters*
  - Health in general (7).
  - Refuse and garbage disposal (7).
  - Sewerage (3).
  - Water supply (5).
  - Housing (10).
  - Hospitals (1).

K. *Public Comfort and Convenience*
  Smoke abatement (7).
  Noise abatement (2).
  Billboards (5).
  Municipal art (4).
  Comfort stations (2).
  Cost of living (2).

L. *Public Safety*
  Public safety in general (3).
  Fire and police (8).
  Building laws (2).

M. *Recreation and Amusement*
  Public amusements (2).
  Parks and playgrounds (7).
  Social centers (2).
  Libraries (1).
  Bathing beaches (1).
  Liquor and saloons (1).
  Moving pictures (1).
  Dance halls (1).

N. *Vice and Morals* (4)

O. *Industrial Welfare and Labor Conditions*
  In general (4).
  Industrial insurance (1).
  Municipal labor exchange (1).
  Immigration (2).

P. *Penal and Charitable Matters*
  Local charities (3).
  Penal and charitable institutions (3).
  Courts and crime (5).
  Judiciary (1).
  Charities and corrections (1).

THE WILLIAM H. BALDWIN PRIZE FOR 1915

The Council of the National Municipal League has selected as the topic for next year's competition the subject of

A CRITICAL STUDY OF THE SOURCES OF MUNICIPAL REVENUE

IN ANY CITY WITH A POPULATION EXCEEDING 50,000

The Baldwin prize of $100 will be given to the author of the best essay on the above subject.

THE COMPETITION IS OPEN TO

Undergraduate students registered in a regular course in any college or university in the United States offering direct instruction in municipal government. : :

The prize will be awarded by judges selected by the Executive Committee of the League, and the names of the winners will be announced at the next following annual meeting.

The essays must not exceed 10,000 words and must be typewritten in duplicate and both copies mailed or delivered to an express company not later than March 15, 1915, addressed to Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Secretary of the National Municipal League, North American Building, Philadelphia, Pa., and marked "FOR THE WILLIAM H. BALDWIN PRIZE." Competitors will mark each paper with a "nom-de-plume," and enclose in a sealed envelope the full name, address, class and college corresponding to such "nom-de-plume."

For any additional details concerning the scope and conditions of the competition inquiries may be addressed to the Secretary.

Eighteen essays were submitted in 1914 for the essay on "Is the Commission Form of Government a Permanent One." The first prize was awarded to Miss Sybel Edelweiss Loughead, of Radcliffe College, Cambridge, and honorable mention was made of the essay submitted by Thomas L. Dyer, of Stanford University, California. Prof. Howard L. McBain, of Columbia University, and Mr. H. J. Haskell, Editor of *The Star*, Kansas City, Mo., acted as judges.

On behalf of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE,

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF,

Secretary.

Secretary's Office
North American Building
Philadelphia, Pa.
September, 1914.

NATIONAL
MUNICIPAL REVIEW

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CHILDREN IN THE CITIES

BY MRS. FLORENCE KELLEY[1]
New York

HENCEFORTH in rating cities, a new element is to be included in the standard, namely, the municipal care of the children. For they are the future of the city. We who are here, are the present and the past. Many of us embody the ideas of the last century. But the future of Baltimore is in the cradle, the kindergarten and the schoolroom. Not its form of municipal government, not its wealth, or its port, or the railroads, or the famous art gallery, or even Johns Hopkins will by future students be deemed so important as the deaths of the children.

So little, however, do we Americans appreciate this fact, that we do not, in any city, know how many are born in a year, or how many in each thousand die. Even though all deaths may be registered, the exact *proportion* of the survivors cannot be known because the whole number of births is nowhere known. Doctor Goler, health commissioner of Rochester, N. Y., pioneer in the municipal crusade against death among city babies hopes, after a dozen years of continuous effort, that he now registers 90 per cent of the births.

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[1] Mrs. Kelley is secretary of the National Consumers' League and has won a national reputation as an effective worker in the cause of improving social conditions in urban centers. This address, which was given before a crowded audience at the Baltimore meeting of the National Municipal League, calls attention in a very vivid way to the necessity for immediate attention to the question of the care to be given to children in the cities. When one considers how much attention is given to the care and treatment of dumb animals and contrasts it with the attention given to human beings, one wonders where the sense of perspective is in American people. In connection with this address it is suggested that the reader refer to Mrs. Kelley's informal remarks at the Thursday morning meeting of the League, reported on page 175 of the January issue.

In New York City for several years efforts have been made to learn how many are born in a year, and we have been witnessing a strange spectacle. Whenever Tammany was in office the official birth rate fell, and whenever Tammany went out of office the official birth rate rose. This phenomenon was due to a simple mechanical device used by Doctor Lederle whenever he was commissioner of health. Following up every certificate of the death of a child, he had the birth records searched to learn whether that child's birth was properly registered. If it was not, the midwife, or physician, and the parents were notified, publicity threatened, and ultimate prosecution in case of continued neglect. With every month of Doctor Lederle's continued search, physicians, midwives, and parents became increasingly careful, and the official birth rate rose. After he had been out of office a month, the search relaxed and people began to grow careless. The official birth rate fell. He came back into office, and it rose again. There might, of course, have been some coincidence, something aside from the fear of prosecution. It might happen that the real birth rate was conspicuously higher one year than the next, but it is not probable.

When we have to admit that we do not know how many children are born in a city where great care is taken to learn the facts, it is a safe assumption that we do not know them in the other cities of the country.[1]

There is at present no standard municipal procedure for ascertaining what children are born. In Rochester, city nurses, school teachers, health inspectors and all other available social agencies are pressed into the service of enquiry after new babies, to supplement the records made by physicians and midwives. But in a neighboring city, a few hours ride from Rochester, no effort is made beyond perfunctory compliance with the state law. And even this perfunctory compliance would be less than it is, if there were not always parents and older boys and girls seeking birth records as the basis of working papers. The New York state child labor law thus incidentally promotes the municipal registration of births.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF CHILDREN'S DEATHS

Since we do not know how many are born each year, we naturally do not know where they are all born. But the health authorities do know *where* they die, and I plead for having this made common knowledge. So far as I have been able to learn, not one city publishes in any popular form the geographical distribution of children's deaths.

Great was the surprise on learning some years since that the highest death rate was not in the most congested part of New York City, where the tenement crowding is greater than anywhere in the world. It had been assumed that that was where people died—where the air was bad, the rooms were dark, the crowding frightful. But the census showed that the proportion there was not so great as elsewhere. It was greater on the lower west side, in the little houses with air and light and yards. That one official illumination of this dark subject reversed our preconceived ideas.

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[1] See Federal Children's Bureau Infant Mortality Series No. 3, Infant Mortality Results of a Field Study in Johnstown, Pa., based on births in one calendar year. 1915.

In not one city is there a widespread, alert, interest in knowing where, within its borders, the children chiefly die. Yet this is obviously the first thing to be learned. No city publishes a continuing series of maps showing from day to day, or from week to week, or even from month to month, or year to year, the location of deaths. Some cities have in the office of the board of health a map on which the place of each child's death is indicated by a pin. Many boards gather, with more or less accuracy, for their own use and exhibit in their own offices this data, the exclusive possession of the commissioners. But I have tried in vain to subscribe to the series of municipal maps, in any city, whereby I could see at a glance in what streets and blocks and boroughs, or wards, or districts, children died on each day of the year. Their deaths are not thought important enough to justify so expensive a publication.

We need a series of infant mortality maps showing deaths of children before the first birthday and before the fifth birthday, and those of children of the age of compulsory school attendance, between entrance at school and the sixteenth birthday. Still other maps should show the nature of the disease.

No city tells the geographical facts so clearly and continuously that the newspapers are interested in publishing them as news. Let us effectively ask the newspapers to introduce these items among their Sunday morning war news. We wish to know, at the beginning of every new week, how many babies were born during the preceding week, how many died, and of what, and where? And how many children died before the fifth birthday, and how many before the sixteenth?

So long as mothers did not know that children need not die, we were not so keen for the disheartening, shameful knowledge of the number and place of the deaths week by week. We strove for resignation, not intelligence. A generation ago we could only vainly mourn. To-day we know that every dying child accuses the community. For knowledge is available for keeping alive and well so nearly all, that we may justly be said to sin in the light of the new day when we let any die.

To this statement the exceptions are those born with non-venereal fatal malformations, and those who develop obscure disorders of the heart or other organs, the mystery of which science has not yet penetrated. Even venereal disease can now be combatted both before and after birth. But the public is nowhere allowed to know how far hereditary syphilis is to blame. Dr. Prince Morrow long ago pointed out that, since we are kept in ignorance of this cause of death, our vital statistics are vitiated and our activities so far paralyzed.

Important and interesting in the future weekly maps and chronicles will be the itemized reports from all the institutions, voluntary and municipal, to which children are entrusted. For they are killed by the same agencies in institutions as outside of them. Without such full and exact records, our effort to save all the lives can never be wholly successful.

If we knew that cholera or bubonic plague were imminent for the year 1915, we should interrupt other activities to prevent that one danger, and no expenditure would be too great for the life-saving task. For either disease would stir our imagination. Or if word should reach this company that one child was being killed in the streets, how we should rush to its rescue! Yet how little we care when the children die by hundreds. I feel safe in risking the assumption that not one person in this room knows how many under one year of age have died in this city, or in his own home city since New Year's day.

A dozen years ago, Doctor Goler achieved in Rochester a spectacular cut in the death rate of little children during the summer, by affording clean milk, handed out by skilled nurses, subject to the direction of competent physicians, to the least intelligent mothers, who had previously been under the care of midwives, or incompetent medical men, or even of quacks. Every municipality attempting such work now knows that, in the first, second and third summer, it can get conspicuous cuts in the death rate.

Since Doctor Goler's demonstration, the cities have shown sustained interest in milk stations, which are in some cases municipal. By the records of the best milk stations, however, we stand accused. For how can we answer the question: Why do we not assure clean milk to all? Why does any corner grocery still purvey foul milk? Why is the milkman not made as responsible a servant of the public as the postman? Is not life more than letters? We have all the knowledge and power requisite; why then do we not apply this knowledge and this power? The only answer that suggests itself is that, in a given city, the whole people do not yet know that this is so.

Convincing evidence is moreover accumulating that there is a limit beyond which the reduction of infant mortality by means of milk stations cannot be carried. Poverty comes in, with insufficient food for the mother, before the child's birth, and for mother and child during its first year. We have not the requisite foundation of knowledge for acting intelligently upon these less conspicuous, but not less effective, causes of infant mortality.[1] When Victor Berger represented Milwaukee in congress, he learned that the city of Washington was not paying sufficient wages to those employed in its humbler tasks. The government of the United States is responsible for the administration of Washington, and pays half the cost. Yet the city was paying wages so low that it was impossible for these humblest employees to keep their families in good health. It will probably never be possible to learn where children die of slow starvation due to insufficient pay allowed their fathers by the cities, until there are more representatives who, like Mr. Berger, insist upon knowing.

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[1] See U. S. Children's Bureau Infant Mortality Series No. 3 referred to above.

In a general way, we are aware that bad housing, also, is a cause of infant mortality. But for want of maps, the degree of identification is imperfectly seen. We are not equipped to show the relation clearly even in one city between housing and the deaths of children.

Vaguely we know that little children especially need sunshine and fresh air. In New York City, it is difficult in certain parts to walk on the sidewalks on sunny days, because of the crowds of baby carriages, with babies sleeping in them. The visiting nurses tell mothers in the tenements that one way to keep babies alive and well is to keep them out of doors in the air and sunshine. But why, if they are to benefit by the air and sun, must they be on the sidewalks? Why are we all, from Eastport to San Diego, so infatuated with back fences that we keep the children in the streets, and leave the wonderful inheritance of land behind their homes sacred to unsewered filth below ground and the family wash overhead? Why should the family wash not be provided for in a reasonable part of the space? Why should it be forever a fetich to which the oncoming generations are sacrificed?

Parks, playgrounds, pageants, water sports, athletic fields, and school gardens we have begun, hither and yonder, in one city or another to provide. But we have been slow, indeed, to reserve the most accessible spots for the most needy candidates, the backyards as gardens adjoining their homes, assured by the municipality to the tenderest, youngest little ones.

In Greater New York where land is fabulously costly, a larger acreage is idle behind the houses than is embraced in all the parks and playgrounds, which we establish so far away that only the older boys and girls can reach them. Thus enormous parks in the Borough of the Bronx are usually empty most of the week, a dozen miles distant from the congested district where babies need outdoor life all the time.

New York City paid $3,000,000 for Seward Park to be used as a playground, a little scrap of land bounded by streets so filled with automobiles that it is exceedingly dangerous for a child of ten to try to reach it. Seward Park is surrounded in every direction by tenement houses with back yards sacred to the family wash, while little children are on the sidewalks, swallowing dust and suffering from noise, or in the streets getting run over. Not far from Seward Park, in the year 1914, five little pupils in one primary school were killed by being run over.

We waste both costly city land and precious lives. If we do not adopt the proposed changes because they are good and reasonable, and adapted to saving life, by making air, light and sunshine accessible to those who most need them, we shall be driven to them by sheer necessity of keeping boys and girls away from ice-wagons, trucks, motor cars, motor cycles, and trolley cars.

For parks and streets we spend lavishly—paving, lighting, policing and decorating them. My plea is that, wisely applied, vastly smaller sums devoted to the land in the rear of the homes would save thousands of young lives.

Whenever, by the popular use of current infant mortality maps, the public becomes enlightened as to particular blocks in which children die in largest proportion, it will doubtless be relatively easy to apply to back yards the right of eminent domain, or whatever other right the municipality asserts when it takes private land for parks and streets. The obvious place to begin is wherever the infant mortality rate is highest. If, as has been suggested, there are yards so foul that they do not lend themselves to the transformation into gardens, what a stimulus to action that hideous fact affords!

Whenever some city awakens to the need of organizing the space back of the houses with the care which we now confine to the front, there will be needed, not policemen—they can be left in the streets—but physicians, nurses and kindergartners or Montessori teachers. With the rear spaces used as gardens for those too young for school—at command for outdoor life by day and night, in rain and sunshine, winter and summer—these municipal friends can protect life and keep the peace far more readily than the police have ever yet succeeded in doing in the streets. Wherever the map reveals a high infant mortality rate, there should obviously be permanently in charge of the garden a highly skilled nurse to teach the mothers, and a physician from the board of health. We act as though boys and girls needed the care of the city only on entering school. Then we provide, indoors, teachers, doctors, and nurses, as a matter of course.

Trees and seats, hammocks for naps, and awninged platforms for hot or rainy days, would cost but little—nothing compared with doctors' bills and burial charges. The expensive element will be the salaries for professional men and women who may reasonably be expected to reduce the death rate by detecting the earliest symptoms of ailing children, guarding the quality of the milk supply, observing while there is yet time all such sinister signs and omens as mothers with the best intentions so commonly fail to note until too late.

The unhappy little mothers who now slave away their out-of-school hours lugging babies, will be freed from cruel slavery when hammocks replace their young arms and aching, too often crooked, backs. This will be not the least of the benefactions conferred, when we urbanize our minds sufficiently to make collective use of our priceless heritage of wasted land behind the houses in our cities.

I wish to record my conviction that a close connection exists between our lack of intelligent action and the irresponsible position of women in relation to municipal activities. In my incessant travel I find in Portland, Oregon, in Los Angeles, in Denver—in any city where mothers, teachers, nurses, carry a full share of responsibility as citizens—a livelier enquiry why and where children die, than in our sleepier Eastern cities, a finer rivalry to keep all the children alive, and happy, and good.

WOMAN'S WORK FOR THE CITY

BY MARY RITTER BEARD[1]
New York City

THE President of the United States has written a history of the American people in five large volumes. It is typical in one respect. A visitor from Mars reading it would imagine that there had been no women in this part of the universe from the landing of the Pilgrims to the present day for scarcely a mention of women can be found in all the hundreds of pages. Apparently "George" has done it all. We learn to our own surprise that a small band of "men" known as Quakers have exerted a considerable influence on the course of our national life and that "men" pushed forward the frontier line of civilization.

The knell of that sort of history is rung. Women are now studying history for themselves. They know the part which women played in the Quaker movement; they know about the contributions to American civilization made by pioneer mothers who bore children on the western trail or in the rude cabin, who also labored in the open fields beside the men, who shared and braved every danger and who, by reason of their sex, were subject to especial perils; they know that women entered this country in earliest times as indentured servants and were sold on the ship's auction block for the same price as men and for the same service; they know something about the heroines of industry as well as its captains; they do not forget the Triangle fire when they read of Bull Run and Vicksburg. Knowing these things women are no longer content with a history that ignores their existence or takes them for granted. Women want true histories if histories there be. We grant, however, that we shall have to supply the new data in all probability and so the silent partner is acquiring a speaking voice.

The quiet consciousness of past achievement and larger plans for the future might well be preserved in a golden silence if the effects of silence were not so bad. These effects penetrate to the school room and influence the formative years of thought and feeling. Men have made the world; boys strut in consequence. Women have done nothing more important than bear sons; girls therefore smirk and take refuge in powder puffs to be busy at something. If a controversy arises as to the achievements of the unrecorded sex, there are no readily available data for the teacher or girl student to bring to bear upon the question to prove to swaggering boys that bluster is no longer a proper manly occupation. Woman's work for the city offers one group of data to prove that women are effective members of society, but it must always be remembered that city problems are bound up with state and national politics and are not isolated interests even to women.

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[1] Mrs. Beard is the wife of Professor Charles A. Beard of Columbia University and is well known for her active work along social and industrial lines, especially in connection with the shirt waist strike and the Triangle fire. Mrs. Beard has just finished a volume on "Women's Work in Municipalities," which is being published in the National Municipal League Series. She is also joint author with Professor Beard of a volume entitled "American Citizenship."

Only the barest outline can be given in my twenty minutes of the municipal work of women. None of the details can be filled in for it would be a graceless undertaking to recite a mere catalogue and I should not be able to dwell at all upon the significance of woman's participation in civic life which is the more important thing for us. Women have not performed their municipal deeds for purposes of self or sex aggrandisement.

First then we find that women throughout our land have tried to make their cities more beautiful by means of parks, fountains, lakes, monuments, boulevards, civic centres, tree planting, window boxes, shrubs, rubbish cans, and, most satisfactory of all, by the elimination of slums. As comprehensive city planning has at last awakened the interest of men so it has finally come to the close attention of women. The woman who has given up an affection for the many-colored crazy quilt and substituted an interior color scheme in her home is no longer content with an exterior world that is painful to look at and deteriorating to live with. The women of Colorado Springs, among others, have been insistent upon a city plan and we now notice among women's organizations in general a marked tendency to talk, if not less about billboards, at least more about congestion; certainly less about tablets to departed soldiers and jurists and more about homes for the living; less about art exhibits and more about the location of factories. In other words the larger aspects of civic beauty now appeal to women and indicate the democracy in art that is developing within their ranks.

We find that women—a veritable army of them—have also sought to make their cities more healthful places in which to live. They have approached the problem of public health from many angles: hospitals, sanatoria, women physicians, children's clinics, district nursing, the reduction of infant mortality, occupational diseases, unnecessary noises, flies, mosquitoes, vermin, dust, sanitation, impure water, food and milk, standards of living, medical inspection, open-air schools, pre-natal care of mothers, baby derbies, vacation camps, safety, baths, laundries, overwork, unemployment, vital statistics, relief, investigation, social service aids and prevention. In these various directions they have initiated experiments, served in advisory capacities, held public office, investigated in a scientific way, raised funds, agitated, educated, legislated (in suffrage states), and pointed out next steps. More significant, however, than what they have actually done for public health is the growing recognition by women of the industrial and political aspects of health.

For instance, in years gone by, women would have stood by the tub or faucet and thanked bountiful providence for water of any amount or description; but now, as they stand there, their minds reach out through the long chain of circumstances that connect the faucet and tub with the gentlemen who sit in aldermanic conclave. Indeed, the work of the women of New Orleans in the establishment and perfection of the water system so that human life in New Orleans might be better conserved may well rank in American history with the battle of New Orleans. By their action—conservative women coming out to vote against all tradition, when public weal demanded it of them—the women of New Orleans have saved more lives than Jackson's army destroyed there—all for the glory of it.

This is the vital thing about women's work in cities: that they are leaving behind the "thank-heaven-it-is-no-worse" stage and the "lady-bountiful" stage in their social development and are coming into the stage of thinking things out and fixing responsibility. This leads to striking results as far as women are concerned. It means the steady elimination of the petty and personal, the search for facts and the willingness to assume responsibility for constructive political and administrative work.

In the search for some of the most useful facts upon which to base municipal policies, women have been trained and capable investigators. They are well adapted to the intimate questioning which home inquiries always involve. To that large and growing branch of public service that is concerned with women and babies, to which women have drawn attention, they have brought especial interest and devotion. Even a cursory glance at the recent and most satisfactory surveys of housing conditions, wages, infant mortality and conditions of labor reveals the service rendered by women in the assemblage of social facts.

Women are investigating minutiae and discussing large generalizations drawn therefrom. They are doing more. They are preparing themselves as municipal experts and in some cities already are serving as food experts, sanitary experts, experts in efficiency, education, charities and corrections, in welfare-planning and in budget-making. In Chicago two women were recently given seats on the charter commission. To prepare themselves for expert suggestion and management, women like Mary McDowell of Chicago, have visited European cities and studied the best methods of street cleaning and garbage disposal. Women like Caroline Bartlett Crane have disciplined themselves by study and experience to serve as skilled advisers to civic organizations laboring upon municipal improvements.

Through their interest and activities as private citizens women are qualifying also to serve the government of cities in legislative, executive and judicial capacities. In legislative hearings upon all manner of municipal problems, we find women presenting facts and arguments, and subjecting proposed measures to minute scrutiny. We find them also at budget hearings, suggesting and criticising, stirring public opinion and seeking to crystallize it. And where they have the vote, as in Chicago, we read of their heroic efforts to oust unfit aldermen and establish higher notions of aldermanic office. In a few western cities we find them making beginnings in service upon city councils.

In executive capacity, women have officiated as mayors, town clerks, auditors, deputy marshals, and police officials. In the scores of offices which they have filled we have heard no rumors of scandal or wilful neglect of duty. That they have served with skill, good conscience, and a high sense of their public obligations seems to be the universal testimony. Moreover, it is a matter of common knowledge that many a municipal politician in office owes the success of his technical administration to the efficiency of a woman under-secretary or the public support rendered his administration by interested women.

Women are even assuming "judicial ermine" in a small but nevertheless important way. As probation officers with semi-judicial duties, they have demonstrated their capacity to unite efficiency with humanity and enlightenment. As judges in juvenile and delinquency courts they are showing that they know the law and can apply it with discrimination and good effect. Through help in legal aid societies, through probation associations, through juvenile protective associations, and through bureaus of social adjustments women are administering justice by helping to prevent cases from coming into court or securing a proper trial when they do come into court. All justice is not spoken by the gentleman of the wig and gown. Lay women know this better than lawyers. To name the women who have served as public servants in the administration of public justice would more than occupy the time at my disposal.

Women have done much to create public opinion and conduct experiments in the solution of civic problems before the government has been ready to assume the burden. Every step in municipal progress in this country has been marked by private experimentation. In this experimentation, women have been pioneers and leaders in many fields. In education, for example, they have been instrumental in many cities in trying out kindergartens, manual and physical training, domestic science, vocational training and guidance, open-air schools, new methods of teaching, and new branches of study. I shall not here detain you with details of their labors in this field. In fact, in this audience that would be a work of supererogation.

In corrections, women have awakened to the gross error which they have committed in leaving the study and prevention of delinquency of girls to men alone and they are making tardy but earnest reparation for their long neglect. Higher standards of morals, for example, are demanded of girls out on probation than are demanded of boys, and women begin to realize that those for boys must reach the same level.

In recreation, housing, civil service reform and agitation against unfair discrimination against women on the civil service list, in social service and the centralisation and co-ordination of relief and preventive agencies women have produced results which command respect.

Step by step women have entered the municipality in many such fields testing, proving, experimenting and securing the incorporation of their labors in the public program, only to find themselves excluded at this point from further participation in the work they have begun. More than one important municipal function devised and tried out by women is now in the hands of professional politicians who know little and care little about the successful outcome of the experiment thus committed to their care. Sometimes this usurpation is carried on thoughtlessly but sometimes we find men who have the temerity to tell women that they ought to go on interminably to experiment, to raise money, and to prove the value of municipal enterprises and then either await a spontaneous invitation to share the further governmental power, or to go on forever, not even murmuring about their exclusion from the powers of government.

It is significant, however, that a great majority of the leaders in women's work in municipalities are no longer content with surrendering their functions when they become most interesting and important. Without desiring to introduce any controversial element here, I should be leaving my survey half-finished if I should overlook the resistless advance of the educated women's opinion in regard to the ballot as an indispensable instrument in the progress of women's work in municipalities. Without claiming for the women's clubs any monopoly of learning and wisdom, I think I may safely say that they have been active in every field of women's work for civic betterment. The records of their hundreds of meetings show this. The first light kindled in many a benighted town has been kindled by the women's club. The direction of their interest in their biennial conventions is steadily swinging toward the governmental aspects of their work. As they have thought of women's problems in cities—sanitation, disease, education, transportation, labor conditions, parks and playgrounds, wages and hours of work—they have inevitably seen their interrelation and their connections with politics and administration. For them to have done otherwise would have been to remain mental children. Having had practical experience with the obstacles to efficient and humanitarian city governments, they have realized that the voter on election day holds the key to the city's progress. They first thought of working upon *him* to arouse *him* to a sense of *his* responsibilities. They went to see *him*, pointed out to *him* municipal needs, presented possible achievements, discussed with *him* party programs and the positions of various candidates and urged *him* to vote in harmony with the public welfare. Results were seldom satisfactory, and, remembering the old school book adage held before them from infancy: "If you want a thing well done, do it yourself," they have finally accepted the philosophy and last June, in national convention asembled, the club women agreed that indirect influence must give way to the direct expression of the will of women as well as of men in governmental affairs.

Other organizations of women, having tried to install good governments by activity among male voters in preparation for city elections, have followed up both successes and failures in that direction by activity in behalf of universal suffrage and the participation of women in public administration. In this hour of universal education, at this stage of their experience, women cannot in reason and in conscience bend their every effort in all spheres of municipal improvement and yet remain indifferent to the problem of who shall control the most potent instrument for civic advancement known to mankind, namely, the city government itself. Thus woman's work in municipalities moves by many paths to the ballot, not as a reward of merit for work done (though that matter should not be overlooked) but as an indispensable instrument for the direction of those institutions already municipalized and in the extension of municipal functions in the future.

Many women are spurred on to seek political power by the knowledge that their existence is at present largely if not completely ignored when some vital matters like unemployment are up for consideration by the city government. Men seem to forget that millions of women have to work as wage-earners subject to the same variability of employment as men. All too often the eyes of the mayor and the council are upon the labor vote and women have to appear at the city hall to remind the authorities of the extent to which they suffer from fluctuations in trade. Usually they are ignored when public efforts are made to meet the problem, and have to fall back upon privately organized relief.

The attempt to limit girls' education to domestic science also appears to many women as a menace. Other problems, governmental in character, that now attract the consideration of women are those of the mother teachers, sex education, the social evil, the absorption and co-ordination by the city of private relief and preventive agencies, ice plants, school hygiene, markets, and the like. Since the federated club women, the federated teachers, the organized women physicians have all within the past year asked for the extension of the franchise to them, it is evident that those so vitally concerned in municipal problems are realizing their peculiar civic responsibilities and are now ready to assume them with enthusiasm, and what is more important, a reasonable degree of intelligence.

If I were speaking to women alone, I might fall into the habit which men generally have of preaching to them. In that case I would plead for greater earnestness on the part of women, for there can never be too much of that on the part of either men or women. I would plead with women to care more, for all things can be done by those who care enough. I would not speak of the past, but of the future; not of achievements, but of ungrasped opportunities.

While my object to-day has been to explain rather than to preach, to describe what has been rather than to forecast what will be, I rejoice that the time has now come when every woman must think and feel for others not of her own little circle. Many there are who still live languidly—too lazy to care; many there are so overworked that they have no time to think. Some are still afraid—afraid to make a man's world a people's world. But "the gates of the future are wide open." The forces not of our own choice or making are driving us on, stirring the convictions of women, entering the boudoir as well as the tenement, drawing forth the drone, filling the poor with hope, diverting money from personal adornment to social uses, forcing us to question anyone's right to undeserved leisure, giving work to the intelligent, revealing women of initiative, judgment, leadership, disinterestedness, and devotion. It is in the light of the new spirit created by these forces that we see the promise of the city that is to be, that we dream "the patriot's dream, that sees beyond the years thine alabaster cities gleam undimmed by human tears."

WOMEN IN OFFICE

BY JANE CAMPBELL[1]

Philadelphia

EVERY year that brings an accession to the electorate of a large number of women voters, sees an increase in the number of women holding office. This is especially true of school positions, the offices of town or county clerk and a few other minor places, which seem to fall naturally to them.

Appointive positions are increasing rapidly, and women are being given some of the most responsible offices in the country, and as showing the trend of public opinion, it is now not a matter of surprise to see women occupying the new position of office-holders.

The elections during the last year were watched with great interest throughout the country, for the woman's vote was felt to be an unknown quantity. As a general thing the woman voter cast her ballot in favor of reform measures, and some of the western towns furnished striking examples of this. For instance in the town of Ottumwa, Iowa, where women have a small measure of suffrage, 2,000 women voted on a measure for municipal ownership of street lights and the proposition carried.

The registration in Kansas was exceedingly heavy; one woman, Mrs. Harriet Harper, who registered, was 102 years old—probably the oldest woman in the state. The election returns showed a large increase in the vote.

The California vote was a record-breaking one, women showing as great interest in casting their ballots as did men, and the majority of the reform measures voted upon were carried, such as the "red light" bill aimed at commercialized vice, the "blue sky" law, a severe blow to dishonest investment companies, the anti-prize fight measure, and the Torrens land law, which it is hoped will end the title guarantee monopoly. The California election is a direct refutation of the assertions made by the opponents of woman-suffrage that women will not vote, or, if they do, will not vote for reform measures, for in California the women did both. Probably the oldest woman in California, who was the first woman to register in the state, Mrs. Lydia Sharpless, 104 years old, voted at the last election.

In almost all places where women were legal voters, they were quite alive to its importance. In Chicago, 75 per cent of the women who registered voted, and cast 123,991 ballots, and they were debarred from voting for some of the most important officers such as county commissioners, who control poorhouses, hospitals and other institutions in which women are interested.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 145.

Women county and town clerks, school superintendents, tax assessors and collectors were elected in considerable numbers in some of the western states, notably Nebraska and Illinois.

One small village in Illinois, Palos Park, which has only between three and four hundred residents, the women voters outnumbering the men by ten, voted to have a commission form of government, and intend making their village a veritable garden spot. Although it possesses so few inhabitants yet it covers two miles of territory, so the enthusiastic women have ample space in which to inaugurate their plans for beautifying the village.

The accounts of the various women office-holders almost invariably speak in high terms of their efficiency and trustworthiness, and as the world has become accustomed to the woman in the professions of law and medicine, so will it in time become accustomed to the woman in office.

MAYOR

Illinois—Kingston Mines. Mrs. Kate York.

Oregon—Troutville. Mrs. Clara Larrson, who was elected by a majority of five over her male opponent.

Utah—Kanab. Mrs. Mary Howard, who is also president of the town council.

TREASURER

Utah—Kanab. Mrs. Luella McAllister.

Washington—Hillyard (a suburb of Spokane). Mrs. Lida M. Goode. Mrs. Goode is serving her third term. The system is up-to-date and one of the best if not the best in the state.

MARSHAL

Michigan—Chesaning. Miss Blanche D. Ingalls.

New Jersey—Rutherford. Mrs. Agnes V. Goetchins, with full police authority.

SHERIFF

Pennsylvania—Washington. Mrs. Jennie W. Weimer is deputy sheriff for Greene County. Her husband is sheriff of the county.

JUDGE

Colorado—Eagle Co. Mrs. Lydia B. Tagule.

Kansas—Mitchell. Mrs. Mary H. Cooper, probate judge.

Missouri—St. Louis. Mrs. E. C. Runge and Miss Catherine Dunn. Both are also probation officers.

Washington—Seattle. Miss Reah H. Whitehead is justice of the peace.

Washington—Tacoma. Miss Nelda Jaeger, first woman police judge in Tacoma.

POLICE

Women as police officers are becoming more and more popular and during the last year among those appointed were the following:

Kansas—Topeka. Miss Elizabeth N. Auburn.

Illinois—Chicago, has ten in all, among them being Mrs. Lulu B. Burt (an expert with the revolver, in a recent contest making a score of 92 out of a possible 100) and Mrs. Mary Boyd, Miss Clara Olsen.

Indiana—Gary. Mrs. Mary Azymonga, Mrs. Ruth M. Charlton.

Indiana—Muncie. Mrs. Thomas F. Hart.

Massachusetts—Boston. Mrs. Anna Steinauer.

New York—Kingston. Mrs. M. G. Michael, who is also a member of the board of health.
Ohio—Cleveland. Miss Pearl E. Kray. Miss Kray is mounted and covers 25 miles a day.
Pennsylvania—Pittsburgh has four women police officers and *Williamsport* has one.
South Carolina—Columbia has one police woman.
Wisconsin—Racine. Miss Rose M. Webers.

PROBATION OFFICERS

Probation officers are also gaining popular recognition. A few new ones to be noted are:
Nevada—Tonopah, has recently appointed one.
Pennsylvania—Carbon Co. Miss Florence Hughes.
Pennsylvania—Philadelphia. Mrs. Mary E. Passmore looks after juvenile delinquents.

Women are filling more legal positions than ever before, in some cases as deputies or clerks, in others as heads of departments. A partial list of those elected or appointed during the last year is here given.

COUNCILLOR

Utah—Kanab. Two women occupy this position, Mrs. Blanche Hamblin and Mrs. Ada Seigmiller.

DISTRICT ATTORNEY, ETC.

California. Assistant district attorney in federal court, Mrs. Annette Abbot Adams.
California—Los Angeles. Assistant prosecuting attorney, Miss Margaret Gardiner.
California—San Francisco. Bond and warrant clerk, Mrs. Jean E. de Greayer (adjusts cases involving women and children).
Delaware—Georgetown. Deputy Recorder of Deeds for Essex County, Miss Lucy Wilson.
Illinois—Chicago. Misses Fanny Freck and Myrtle D. Johnson—map draughtsmen in county recorder's office.
Illinois—Chicago. Adele Whitgreave, deputy clerk in boys' court.
Illinois—New Grier. Miss Gertrude M. Thurston, supervisor of township. Elective.
Illinois—Chicago. Carolyn Grimsby and Catherine Madden—deputy clerks in court of domestic relations.
Pennsylvania—Philadelphia. Miss Georgeanna Hopkins, chief, and Miss Mary E. Clendenin, special agent of the domestic relations branch of the municipal court.
Pennsylvania—Sunbury. Miss Sara Stout, clerk in prothonotary's office.
Texas—Dallas. Miss Eula Lowe, assistant county attorney.

COUNTY CLERK

Washington—Wahkiakum Co. Miss Mary C. Cooper. (Said to be highly efficient.)
Nebraska—has two county clerks and one coroner.

TOWN CLERKS

California—Santa Barbara. Miss Christian Holmberg. (Elected three to one over male opponent, women voters were a factor in her election.)
Connecticut—Naugatuck. Miss Lillian W. King, assistant town clerk and assistant registrar of vital statistics.
Illinois—Camargo. Miss Jessie Lelsinger.
Illinois—Rushville. Miss Nora Trimble.
New Jersey—Milville. Miss Helen Myers. Miss Myers was appointed, though other town clerks as a usual thing are elected.
Utah—Kanab. Mrs. Tamar Hamblin.

An office to which a number of women were elected especially in Illinois was that of tax collector. A few women were chosen as tax assessors.

TAX ASSESSORS

Eight Chicago women were made deputy tax assessors, their special duty being to investigate personal property holdings of women and children.
Illinois—Danville. Elizabeth Coton.
Texas—Travis County. Mrs. Carrie Hill, tax assessor for the county.

TAX COLLECTORS

Illinois—Aledo. Miss Dora Lofgren.
Barrington. Mrs. Carrie Martin.
Braceville. Miss Nellie Moffett.
Camargo. Miss May Haddow.
Carthage. Miss Carrie Merrill.
Champaign. Miss Harriet Cumberland.
Christian. Mrs. Minnie Patterson.
Clintonia. Miss Maud Doty.
Dry Point. Gertrude Dowell.
Greenfield. Mrs. Fannie Davis.
Hillsboro. Mrs. Maude H. Masters.
Hunt City. Mrs. Katharine Lewis.
Lewiston. Mrs. Clara Bennett.
Martin. Mrs. Grace Hutson.
Mercer. Miss Emma Cowan.
Mount Carroll. Mrs. Rebecca E. Anks.
Mount Hope. Mrs. Della Hooper.
North Litchfield. Miss Dolly Helm.
Neponset. Mrs. George A. Reed.
Ohio. Mrs. Anna Spencer.
Pecatonica. Mrs. Nellie Markham.
Rantoul. Mrs. Gertrude Peterson.
Rock Creek. Mrs. E. C. Dick.
Secor. Miss Louise Kilbury.
Sycamore. Mrs. Ione Beach.
Toledo. Miss Ethel B. Albin.
Tompkins. Miss Grace Bricker.
Wade. Mrs. Nacy Mathemy.
Texas—Travis County. Mrs. Eli H. Miller.

MISCELLANEOUS OFFICES

Women are now filling a number of miscellaneous offices throughout the country, many of them carrying grave responsibilities but the incumbents from all accounts give general satisfaction. Among these positions may be enumerated:

Colorado—Denver. Mrs. Mary Wolfe Dargin is registrar and chief of Federal land office.
Delaware—Wilmington. Miss Gladys Holmes Tilney, law librarian in the court house.
Rehoboth Beach. Miss Elsie Magee, secretary, board of public works.
Illinois—Chicago. Mrs. W. C. Keough, statistician of sanitary district. Miss Edith Abbott, compiler of crimes statistics.
Massachusetts. Mrs. Mary H. Dewey, member of state board of labor and industries.
Missouri—St. Louis. Miss Elizabeth Rumboldt, head of recreation department of city government.
Pennsylvania. Mrs. Jean K. Foulke, farm adviser of homes in state agricultural department.
Pennsylvania—Philadelphia. Miss Neva Deardorf, chief of bureau of vital statistics of bureau of health.
Pennsylvania. State commission to establish a cottage colony for the insane on a state reserve—Mrs. George H. Earle, Mrs. E. B. Haworth, Mrs. Alexander Laughlin, Dr. Mary N. Wolfe.
Wyoming. State librarian, Miss Frances Davis. Winifred Stewart, deputy commissioner on public lands—an important state office. *Cheyenne.* Miss Bertha Meyers, deputy to the commission on Finance. (Miss Meyers is known as one of the best accountants in the city of Cheyenne.)

CITY PLANNING

Massachusetts—Boston. Miss Emily G. Balch, member of city planning board and of immigration committee. *Somerville.* Mrs. Barbara Galpin, city planning board of Somerville.

In the field of health, hygiene, sanitation and medicine, women enter a domain which seems to appeal especially to them and they fill an ever-increasing number of offices which deal directly with all such subjects.

Connecticut—New Haven. Mrs. Henry Wade Rogers is a member of the Improved Housing Association.
District of Columbia. Misses Margaret Dinsmore and Mary Louise Simpson are inspectors of work rooms where women are employed.

Illinois—Chicago. Miss Mary McDowell is a member of the commission of councils to make a study of the collection and disposal of garbage. Miss Lucy C. Owen is an assistant. Dr. Clara Seippel is assistant city physician.

Iowa. Has women factory inspectors.

New York—New York City. Misses Juliet Arden, Deborah Sabsovich and Charlotte Stolberg are inspectors of the bureau of fire prevention.

HOSPITALS

Illinois—Cooke County. Miss Ada Belle McCleery is chief of the tuberculosis hospital.

Massachusetts—Boston. Dr. Sara G. Dyer is an interne in New England hospital for women and children. *Worcester.* Dr. Helen J. LeMaistre and Louise M. Ingersoll are internes in Worcester memorial hospital.

New Jersey. Marietta B. Squire is a member of the board of examiners for nurses.

New York—New York City. N. M. Goerns, assistant night superintendent in St. Luke's hospital. Katharine R. Drinker, interne in New York infirmary for women and children. *Ossining.* Miss Mabel Jarrett, assistant superintendent of Ossining hospital.

Pennsylvania—Philadelphia. College Hospital, recent internes are Doctors Slayton, Bauer, Lentz, Boland and Taylor. Woman's Hospital—Doctors Downie, Waidelich, Smith, Rose and Coughlen are late additions to the number of internes. *Reading.* Miss Jane B. Cross, graduate of Jefferson College, superintendent of Reading hospital.

Texas—Houston. Miss Helen Lynn, superintendent of nurses in municipal hospital.

Women are now found in increasing numbers on poor boards and in a variety of charitable and settlement organizations which have for their object the bettering of the conditions that confront the poor.

OVERSEERS OF THE POOR

New Jersey—Jersey City. Miss Anita Irish. *Stone Harbor.* Miss M. L. Van Thuyne. *Trenton.* Mrs. Era H. Mansell.

New York—Blackwell's Island. Two women are on the staff, a physician and a warden to look after women prisoners.

Pennsylvania—South Bethlehem. Mrs. Marcella McGovern, poor agent.

REFORMATORIES

Massachusetts—Sherburn. Mrs. Jessie D. Holder, superintendent of Massachusetts reformatory for women.

New Jersey. Mrs. Fielder, wife of Governor Fielder, and Mrs. Elinor C. Stewart, are members of board of managers of state reformatory of New Jsrsey.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, PUBLIC HEALTH, SOCIAL SERVICE SETTLEMENTS

California—San Francisco. Dr. Maude Wilde, chairman of public health department.

Illinois—Cook County. Miss Amelia Sears, chief of social service bureau of Cook County. *Chicago.* Mrs. Leonora Z. Meader, chief of social service bureau of Chicago. Miss Mary E. McDowell, head resident of University of Chicago settlement.

New Jersey. Elizabeth Mackenzie, tenement house supervisor.

New York. Dr. Katherine Bement Davis, head of department of charities and correction.

Oklahoma. Miss Kate Barnard, state commissioner of charities. Miss Estelle Blair, assistant.

Washington. Mrs. R. C. McCredie, member of state board of health.

JURY SERVICE

Illinois—Chicago. In detention hospital jury of women physicians to decide on mental disorders of women, appointed in judge's court for the insane.

Washington—Montesano. Women serve as jurors.

SCHOOLS

State Officers

Arkansas. Miss Eva Reichardt, state organizer of the school improvement association. Only woman state officer in Arkansas.

California. Dr. Margaret Schallenberger, state commissioner of education for the elementary schools of California. Mrs. Charlotte Gale, member of board of trustees of state normal school.

County Officers

Kentucky—Rowan Co. Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart, county superintendent.
New York—Auburn. Mrs. Julia C. Ferris, school commissioner.
Nebraska. Forty-eight county superintendents.
Texas—Travis Co. Miss Maude Douglass, county superintendent.

Local School Boards

Delaware—Dover. Mrs. Sarah Cooper, Mrs. Mary Draper, Mrs. Jennie McIntosh, members of school board. Elective.
Illinois—New Grier Township. Miss Katherine P. Gisling, trustee.
New Hampshire—Franklin. Mrs. Ellen E. Webster. (New city charter gives school suffrage to women.) *Nashua.* Miss Ruth H. French.
New Jersey—Hammonton. Mrs. H. McD. Little. *Moorestown.* Mrs. Frances Herr and Mrs. M. M. Perkins. *Mount Holly.* Mrs. Alice Kent Stoddard and Mrs. Ida Tomlinson. *Vineland.* Mrs. Martha Morris. (The Vineland woman's club marched in a body to the polls to cast votes for Mrs. Morris.)
New York—Delhi. Mrs. John C. Stoddart and Mrs. S. F. Adee.
North Dakota—Dickenson. Has a popular woman member of the school board.

STATE SENATORS

Arizona. Mrs. Frances Willard Munds.
Oregon. Miss Kathryn Clark.

STATE REPRESENTATIVES

Oregon—for Douglass County. Miss Marian B. Towne.
Utah. Mrs. Howard King, Dr. Jane Skofield.

Arizona also elected a woman from Apache County to the lower house of the state legislature—Mrs. Rachel Berry. Almost every county in Arizona elected a woman for some office.

FEDERAL POSITIONS

A number of federal positions have been given to women, for some of which a woman seems to be specially fitted. Among them may be mentioned:

Children's Bureau. Chief, Miss Julia Lathrop; statistical expert, Miss Helen L. Sumner; child welfare, Miss Estelle Hunter; expert on sanitation, Dr. Grace L. Meigs; expert on social service, Miss Emma O. Lundberg.
Bureau of Chemistry. Dr. Mary E. Pennington, Miss Albert Read, Miss Ruth C. Greathouse, Miss Maude L. Mason.
Bureau of Plant Industry. Mrs. Flora Wambaugh-Patterson, mycologist.
Federal Labor Commission. Miss Gertrude Barnum, represents women and children.
U. S. Commission on Industrial Relations. Mrs. J. Borden Harriman.
National Vocational Education Board. Composed of nine members to investigate and report. Miss Florence Marshall and Miss Agnes Nestar are the two women members.
Special examiner appointed by U. S. District Court of Oregon. Mrs. Mary E. Bell. (Mrs. Bell held hearings in government suits against telegraph and telephone companies.)
Women's National Rivers and Harbors Congress. Mrs. Lovell White, president of California branch.
Panama Exposition—California, Los Angeles. Mrs. F. C. Porter, member of Los Angeles County board for the exposition. *Wisconsin, Elm Grove.* Mrs. Adda F. Howie, head of dairy section for World's Congress of Farm Women at Panama-Pacific Exposition. (Mrs. Howie is said to have the finest herd of Jersey cattle in the county.)

The above list does not include the names of all the office-holding women of the country, only those that have been elected or appointed to office during the past year, and even this list is but a partial one, but it is enough to show that women can and do hold office and fulfil their duties in a manner acceptable to the community.

PROBATION—A PRACTICAL HELP TO THE DELINQUENT

BY HON. JAMES A. COLLINS[1]

Indianapolis, Ind.

IT IS not the purpose of this paper to present a theory for dealing with the poor and unfortunate who daily crowd the police courts, but to describe the actual working of a definite plan.

The first piece of legislation in Indiana looking toward a more humane method of dealing with offenders against the law was the indeterminate sentence law in 1897. The old system of measuring out a definite amount of punishment for so much crime was replaced by this law, which provided a minimum and maximum prison term and gave the trustees of the penal institutions the power to parole prisoners at the expiration of the minimum term. In other words, the state, instead of merely imprisoning those who broke her laws sought by this new system to make of them better citizens. While apparently revolutionary in character, this law was but an application of the principle embodied in the state constitution of 1816 and again in that of 1851, "The penal code shall be founded upon the principles of reformation and not of vindictive justice."

Since this law has been in operation more than six thousand persons have been paroled from the reformatory and state prisons. A decided majority of these lived up to the conditions of their parole and during that period earned for themselves more than a million dollars. These facts alone demonstrate the wisdom and justice of this new method of dealing with those who pay their debt to society by serving a term of imprisonment.

The legislature of 1903 made a wider application of this principle in the enactment of the juvenile court law. This law created a separate court in Marion County (Indianapolis) for the trial of juvenile offenders. It also provided for the establishment of a volunteer probation system, and it prohibited the incarceration of any children, coming within the scope of the law, in the same building, yard or enclosure with adult convicts.

Before the enactment of the juvenile court law, no legal method existed in this state by which juvenile offenders could be accorded any treatment different from that accorded to adults. This law with its provision for adequate investigation, before trial, of all children brought into the court, and its other provision for the appointment of volunteer probation officers opened the way for a definite, permanent, method of dealing with such offenders. To these provisions of the law is due almost entirely the success of the Marion County juvenile court in working out the great problems of juvenile reformation.

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[1] Judge Collins was elected judge of the city court in Indianapolis in 1909 and served four years. In 1914 he was elected judge of the Marion criminal court, taking office on January 1, 1915. He has taken an active part in civic affairs and in the work of the Episcopal Church, especially along social lines.

The records of the juvenile court show that more than 1,800 children brought into the court, charged with violations of the law, have been placed on probation under the supervision of volunteer probation officers, and of this number only about 15 per cent have failed to respond to good influences and have been committed to institutions for more rigid discipline.

The volunteer probation officers who serve in the Juvenile Court belong to no particular class or creed. Men and women, white and black, Catholic, Protestant and Hebrew have all gratuitously joined in this great movement for the social regeneration of the children of the city. This volunteer probation system has proven to be not only a moral, but a practical force in the community. Through its influence hundreds of boys have found steady employment; girls and destitute children have been placed in good homes; poor children suffering from physical defects have been provided with needed treatment by expert physicians without any expense to the parents; and through the personal contact of the probation officer home conditions have been improved and parents aroused to a keener sense of their obligation to their children.

An extension of this beneficent principle was made possible in 1907 by the enactment of a law under which courts may exercise the right to suspend sentence or withhold judgment in the case of adults. This measure made possible the application of the probation system in the administration of justice in circuit and criminal courts and in courts having concurrent jurisdiction by implication in city courts also.

The power to suspend sentence in many cases where the circumstances seemed to justify has saved many novices in crime from undergoing the harsh punishment that would otherwise be meted out to them and that seems to be contrary to the constitutional provision that "All penalties shall be proportioned according to the nature of the offense." As Judge Roby formerly of the appellate court of Indiana has well said, "The system under which a father and husband pleading guilty to a charge of larceny based upon the taking of a bundle of oats or a loaf of bread was sent up, was often absolutely sure to work brutal injustice. That it continued as long as it did is a remarkable fact."

The magnitude of the problem affected by this legislation is neither understood nor appreciated except by the few who officially come in contact with the police courts. During the four years prior to January

3, 1910, 37,904 persons were adjudged guilty in the city court of Indianapolis. Of this number 25,686 were committed to the workhouse and the jail. The majority of these cases were disposed of at a morning session averaging about two hours. It was no uncommon experience for the presiding judge to dispose of a slate comprising a hundred or more cases at a rate greater than one a minute. By such methods the spirit of our constitutional provision was ignored and the first trivial offense was punished with the same rigor that was meted out to the hardened criminal.

No statistics are available showing what number or proportion of these convictions were for first offenses, but unquestionably the percentage was large, for the reason that this court has jurisdiction in cases of misdemeanors and violations of city ordinances over all boys who have passed the full age of sixteen and girls who have passed the full age of seventeen. A trifling percentage of the total number convicted escaped the penalties imposed by a suspension of the sentence. The rest answered for their offenses by paying fines or by incarceration in the jail, the workhouse or correctional department of the woman's prison.

To administer justice properly in a police court the presiding judge should earnestly endeavor to distinguish between the delinquent and the criminal—the occasional and the chronic violator of the law; and to give sufficient time for careful investigation of the merits of each case; and to see that while the community is protected, the rights of the individual, especially of the poor and ignorant and uninfluential individual, be not overlooked. Of the 25,686 persons committed to the jail, the workhouse and correctional department of the woman's prison from our police court during the period above referred to, how many were benefited by incarceration? The imprisonment of some no doubt benefited the state and the public. A large number, however, receive the sentence imposed not because of criminal acts or criminal instincts, but because, unaided, they could not resist besetting temptations. To such as these, a term in the jail or workhouse was not a term in a house of correction, but a term in a house of corruption. Once the barred doors closed behind the unhappy prisoner his lot was the common lot of all. He became the forced associate of criminals; his self-respect was gone; his will was weakened; and his mind was prepared to receive instructions in crime proffered to him on every hand. He must of necessity come from such a place a less desirable citizen.

Recognizing the seriousness of the evils, I pledged the people of Indianapolis, in the municipal campaign of 1909, that if elected judge of the city court, I would introduce a probation system as a means of helping delinquent men and women.

In its strict sense, "Probation is a judicial system by which an offender against penal law, instead of being punished by a sentence, is given an opportunity to reform himself under supervision, and subject to conditions imposed by the court, with the end in view that if he shows evidence of being reformed no penalty for his offense will be imposed."

The probation system inaugurated in the city court of Indianapolis contemplates the following:

First. The suspended sentence: During the three years that this plan has been in force sentence has been suspended in 574 cases and judgment withheld in 6,681. The majority of these were first offenders. In those cases where the judgment was suspended the court has had to set aside the suspension of sentence and commit the defendants in five cases, and where the judgment has been withheld less than 2 per cent have been returned to court for a second or subsequent offense.

While there is no provision under the law for the employment of paid probation officers, adequate supervision in 575 cases was made by good citizens who volunteered to serve in that capacity. These probationers were required to furnish the court a monthly report signed by the probation officer. Time will not permit the details of these reports. Each tells its own story of heroic efforts toward right living.

Second. Paying fines on installments: Could you witness, as I have on many a Monday morning, the pitiable scenes of wives and mothers and sobbing children, crowding the corridors of the city court pleading with officers and attaches of the court to say a word to the judge in behalf of a husband or father, you would then understand the need of a different system of dealing with this class of people. Much of their suffering came from the assessment of the fines which the defendant was unable to pay or replevy. He was imprisoned not because the court believed he should be imprisoned, as there was no term of imprisonment added, but because he was unable to pay the fine. In other words, he was imprisoned for debt—a form of punishment which was abolished in this country many years ago. To reach this situation and to aid this particular class a plan was introduced for the collection of money in small payments to be applied on fines and costs.

In those cases where a defendant had others dependent upon him for support he has been released on his own recognizance and the case held under advisement for thirty or sixty days, as the circumstances seemed to justify. At the expiration of which time he was required to report to the court that he had paid in the amount designated as the fine and costs to be entered against him. In the three years that this plan has been in operation $27,410 has been paid in by probationers. On a number of occasions the court has made recommendations to the governor for executive clemency and whenever a parole has been granted the defendant has been directed to pay his fine and costs to the probation officer of the city court.

This plan operates to the benefit of the defendant in several ways: It saves him his employment; it saves his family from humiliation and disgrace, as well as from the embarrassment incident to imprisonment; but more than all, it saves him his self respect. It has also resulted in a reduction in the number of commitments to the jail and the workhouse, which has meant a large saving in maintenance to the county and an increase in the revenues of the common school fund.

Third. Drunkenness and the pledge system: No unfortunates appeal more strongly to the court than those having the liquor habit. In all cases of first offenders charged with being drunk and in those cases where the defendant had others dependent upon him for support, the court has made it a condition on withholding judgment or suspending the sentence that the defendant take the pledge for a period varying from six months to one year. Under this plan 302 persons have taken the pledge and of this number all but 26 have kept the same faithfully.

In the severe cases where the defendant was bordering on the delirium tremens, he was committed to the workhouse and the superintendent informed of his condition. While there are no special arrangements for the treatment of inebriates at the workhouse the superintendent has successfully provided a separate department. These cases are thoroughly examined by the workhouse physician and such medical and special attention are given to them as the circumstances seem to justify. With these inadequate facilities a splendid work is now being done among this class of unfortunate and harmless offenders. When the family or relatives could afford it, persons have been sent to institutions to be treated for the liquor habit and our records show but one failure. Where the financial condition of the defendant was such that he could not pay for the treatment arrangements have been made for the payment of the money into the probation department in weekly installments thus assuring for the defendant the benefit of the paid treatment and the institution the satisfaction of the debt.

Fourth. Medical and surgical treatment: Men suffering from physical defects have frequently been before the court charged with offenses entirely out of harmony with their antecedents and environments. In these cases the court has been able to call to its assistance some of the best surgeons of the city and has received the support and co-operation of the superintendent of the city hospital.

Fifth. The criminal code is absolutely silent upon the question of recovery for loss or damage to property and injuries to the person growing out of criminal acts except that in cases of malicious trespass the court may fine a defendant a sum equal to twice the amount of the property damage. To fine a person double the value of the property damaged and because of his failure to pay the same, to place the additional burden on the citizen of supporting him in the workhouse or jail seems in itself an absurdity. As a part of the probation plan the court requires every person charged with any offense involving the loss or damage to property and injuries to the person to make full and complete restitution to the injured party before the final disposition of the case. Upon a proper showing that restitution has been made, the court is then in a position to take such action as the other facts in the case justify. Under this plan more than $5,000 has been recovered and turned over to the proper parties.

Sixth. To Amos W. Butler and Demarchus C. Brown, of the board of state charities, is due the credit for the suggestion of a separate session for the trial of women and girls. Like all innovations connected with matters pertaining to the police, it was first looked upon as a fad and predictions were freely made that because of the nature of the work and the rapidity with which it must be discharged the life of the plan would be short. But notwithstanding the criticism, it has become established as a permanent method of dealing with the delinquent women of the city. The local council of women by their efforts have made it a practical reality. With their aid and assistance the legislature of 1911 enacted a law providing for the appointment of a court matron in cities of the first and second class and this act prescribed her duties as follows: "She shall, under direction of the judge of the city court, investigate and report to such judge upon the past histories, conditions of living, character, morals and habits of all women and girls awaiting trial in such city court and shall have supervision of such women and girls while not in actual custody until final disposition of the charge or charges against them."

Out of 478 cases investigated under direction of the court matron only 49 were fined or committed to the jail or correctional department of the woman's prison and in the remaining cases the investigation disclosed that the facts would not justify imprisonment and the court either suspended the sentence or withheld judgment.

All cases involving domestic trouble have been added to the special work brought into the separate session. As a result of the investigation of 328 of these, less than 25 per cent of the offenders were committed to the jail or the workhouse. In the majority the court has withheld judgment and the defendant has been required to take the pledge and the wife has been directed to furnish the court with a written report on the first of each month as to the conduct of the offending husband.

Since January 3, 1910, the court has disposed of 43,881 cases. It would be impossible to convey through the medium of this paper the results that have been obtained in the transaction of this stupendous amount of business through exercising a friendly interest in these unfortunates.

Financially considered there has been a great saving to the county in the cost of maintaining its penal institutions in that there has been a reduction of 50 per cent in the number of commitments; $27,410.00 has been collected from probationers who because of inability to pay under the old method would have been committed to the jail or workhouse; and there has been a gain of $3,144.75 to the common school fund.

The results of a system of justice are not to be measured wholly by dollars and cents. Of far greater significance is the moral uplift.

The reports to the court show that home conditions have improved; that men have abstained from the use of intoxicating liquor; that employers have been enlisted in taking a more friendly interest in employees; that many have joined churches, and in other ways have added to a higher standard of living.

A probation system established in every court in this state exercising criminal jurisdiction would be a profitable investment so far as the public is concerned, but better than all it would mean the social regeneration of thousands of men and women.

THE CITY'S HOUSEKEEPING

BY HUGH MOLLESON FOSTER[1]
New York City

SUPPOSE a landlady bought her groceries of a grocer who was a friend of a friend, simply because he was such, and not recommended to her for any other qualification; how long would her business last? Yet that is what the city of New York has done.

Unbusinesslike as it may sound, it is no exaggeration, and still we have much to congratulate ourselves upon, for the present methods of purchasing supplies for the municipal government are far better than they were a few years ago. The improvement is chiefly due to various officials, past and present, who are often far more conscientious than the general public seems to believe. It is not so many years ago that business with the city went by favor. A dealer who wanted to do business with the city had to do it in the "good old fashioned way"—by political pull. A business man might contribute to "the organization," or do a favor for the "boss," and, if he made his contributions large enough and did favors often enough, at last he got "in right."

A commissioner owed his appointment as head of a department to the mayor and the mayor owed his election to "the organization"—and that is "the boss." The situation was like a pair of scissors rivetted in the middle and by proper manipulation of the handles it was easy enough to unite the points; and so the commissioner and the contractor were brought together. Such a relation does not necessarily imply graft nor does it entail any impropriety of a milder sort, but there were undoubtedly many instances of abuse. Ordinary business men prefer to give orders to friends or friends of friends and nothing is said; but private business may do many things which if attempted in public affairs would raise an outcry. Public protest against this system of favoritism became so acute and so general that even those engaged in it realized that the time had come for a change. It was demanded that all business men should have equal opportunities of doing business with the city.

Then the first step, in the subsequent development of the present method of purchasing supplies for the city, was taken. Provision was made in the charter that all items amounting to $1,000 or over must be purchased by contract after advertising and public letting, and this arrangement gave competitors the equal opportunity they had sought. Soon, however, the restriction was evaded. If an item amounted to $1,000 or more, it was split up into two or more orders and so kept under the mark and once more given to the favored ones. This lapse to the old abuse was in turn overcome by a new provision in the charter. It was provided that all goods of one kind of which a year's consumption amounted to $1,000 or more, must be bought by contract. That is, all canned goods, dry groceries and so forth, for instance, were advertised and awarded in one contract; but this allowed what are known as "split bids"—bids low on some items and high on others, but making an average just low enough to win. The contractor then delivered inferior goods on the low-priced items and so the city was defrauded.

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[1] Connected with the bureau of standards of the New York Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

This method again has been recently improved. All canned goods, say, may be advertised in one list; but awards are made item by item. The lowest bidder on peaches gets the contract for peaches and the lowest bidder on apricots gets the contract for apricots and so on, each item being awarded by itself and irrespective of any other. This absolutely defeats the evil of split bids. The advantage becomes more apparent the longer the list of goods of one classification.

Let us suppose now that our hypothetical landlady bought her groceries by telephone and never looked at them when they were delivered.

The next step that was taken, though not so wide in its application, was even more effective in its tendency toward economy, concentration and system. This step was taken by the comptroller.

The charter stipulates that the comptroller shall authorize for payment all claims against the city only upon the certification of an auditor of accounts that the supplies have been delivered or the work performed and that the prices therefor are reasonable and just, and an auditor so certifies only upon the certification of an inspector, after the last has actually ascertained the facts.

It was the desire to strengthen his knowledge upon which payments were based that induced the comptroller to organize his division of inspection. Of course inspection had been done before that, but in a haphazard and unsystematic way. Under the present well regulated inspection service the work is thoroughly systematized and the results have been beyond expectation. The city is divided into districts with an inspector or two in each and to the larger receiving points a special inspector is assigned with a clerk to check quantities. All purchasing agents of the various departments are required to send to this division duplicate copies of their orders at the time that these are sent to the dealers. In this way inspectors are notified before the delivery of the goods and so have opportunity to inspect all supplies. The inspectors are authorized to inspect all supplies delivered and all work done and to examine all books and records in connection therewith, and it is their duty to pass upon quantity, quality and the reasonableness of prices. Besides, they are required to make special investigations and to report suggestions for the general betterment of the service. When the inspector finds that the quality of the supplies does not conform to the specifications, their rejection is recommended to the department to which they have been delivered. When the price is found to be exorbitant, by comparison with prices obtained elsewhere for the same article, a compromise with the dealer is arranged. The other departments have co-operated generously in inspection work and the results have been far-reaching.

The average layman would find it difficult to believe the enormous amounts of goods of inferior quality which are rejected every year and the great number of high prices which are cut to the "reasonable and just" limit. These are not the only benefits effected by inspection. All contractors now realize that their goods will be subjected to a rigid inspection and usually govern themselves accordingly, so that the average quality is far better than it was a few years ago. This realization, although it may be negative in form, has great moral effect and is none the less real and preventive because it can not be recorded in words and figures.

Suppose our hypothetical landlady bought a French chop for one boarder and an English chop for another.

The latest phase of this development of businesslike management of supplies is the most comprehensive and important thus far undertaken. It is so not only in the immediate work done, but more especially in strengthening all that has gone before. This improvement also came from the comptroller. Comptroller Metz established the division of inspection and Comptroller Prendergast established the standardization commission.

The function of this commission, as its name implies, is to bring order out of the chaos which previously prevailed. Thus far the commission has issued standard specifications for coal, forage, ice, fruits, vegetables, meats, fish, soap and other supplies. These specifications have been ratified by the board of estimate and apportionment and are now binding upon all the municipal departments. In time it is intended to include all supplies, so that there will be a fixed standard of quality for all supplies which the city buys, such as all well-regulated large business organizations enforce.

Suppose our hypothetical landlady bought beef of one butcher at 35 cents a pound one day and of another butcher at 25 cents a pound the next day.

What next? What will be the next step in the great experiment of reducing the purchase of supplies for the city to the most economical basis? The question naturally arises and many answers as promptly respond. Why not standardize prices? Prices of course depend upon supply and demand, it will be smugly retorted, and that opens the vista to the whole tossing sea of political economy and even a buyer of so large a calibre as the city of New York can hardly say what it will pay and what it will not pay for a given article. Certainly no fixed price for any given article can be long maintained, but if all the forces now engaged in purchasing and so scattered, should be concentrated in one department and information collected on a scale equal to that in previous standardization work, results may well be achieved which would far surpass what has already been done.

The standardization of prices should not be allowed to interfere with the commissioners of the various departments in their prerogative of the purchase of supplies. Each commissioner assumes the responsibility for the administration of his department, and therefore must retain the authority of declaring what the requirements of his department are. Otherwise a charge of mismanagement could be shifted by the commissioner on to the shoulders of those who had deprived him of his power of purchase. In order to provide against this, each commissioner should have in the purchase or supply department or bureau his own representative to name the supplies required for his department in kind and quantity. The function of the supply department, in the standardization of prices, should be only to regulate prices by reduction, concentration and uniformity; and, as to the supplies themselves, to control the distribution thereof. The representative of the commissioner should receive all requisitions from his department and also act as a special purchasing agent for supplies of one kind. All these representatives should constitute a board of purchasing agents subordinate to a director and all, together with the director, should be of the classified service. The director should be subject to a board of purchase composed of the mayor, the comptroller and the president of the board of aldermen. By some such arrangement as this the purchases of supplies of one kind could be combined in one transaction, so that prices could be greatly reduced; and records could be kept by each purchasing agent showing the quantities consumed in his department, so that distribution could be regulated and waste obviated, or at least decreased.

Suppose the hypothetical landlady with 78 boarders allowed each boarder to buy his own salt and pepper, or even butter and meat, and then send the bills to her.

There are 78 parts of the municipal government listed in the budget at present. Seventeen of these are regularly constituted municipal departments, and the others are: The mayorality, chamberlain, Bellevue and allied hospitals, the College of the City of New York, Hunter College, and various boards, commissions, associations, libraries, courts, the presidents of the boroughs and so forth. All these buy their supplies separately and a large proportion buy goods of the same kind.

The largest two items definitely named in the budget are forage and fuel. Twenty-five branches of the municipal government buy coal, each buying independently of all the others and each under annual contract; so that for coal alone there are 25 contracts issued in the name of the city every year. Until recently each department drew up its own specifications; so that there was considerable disparity in British thermal units, ash, moisture, volatile matter and other elements of the requirements. The coal bill for the city for the year 1912 amounted to over $2,000,000 and, like most other items, is on the increase from year to year.

Fourteen branches of the municipal government buy forage under conditions similar to those of the purchase of coal, and there are thus 14 contracts for forage every year. The bill for forage amounts to nearly $1,000,000 a year.

These two items are taken as instances, but there are so many others that it may be loosely said that the city buys nearly every article of commerce. It is difficult to name many things the city does not buy from apples to zinc. All items over $1,000 are required to be bought under contract, but this regulation leaves an enormous number of smaller items which are bought by open market orders. In all transactions of both kinds all the departments and other branches of the municipal government act independently, so that many may be buying the same article at the same time from the same dealer at the same or different prices. In this way purchasing is diffused through dozens of channels, at a consequent waste, which might be concentrated into one transaction at a corresponding reduction in cost; because buying in greater quantities would command lower unit prices.

In the case of goods bought under contract the procedure is rather complicated. The amount required for a given department for one year is determined by ascertaining from all bureaus, divisions and institutions in the department the amount each will need and adding these together. Then the specifications, for articles not yet standardized, governing the quality, are drawn up and the full contract, with all its legal technicalities, is written and must be submitted to the corporation counsel for his approval. Notices are then published in *The City Record* of amounts required, specifications, points of delivery and the date when sealed bids will be received; and samples, to which the goods delivered must conform, are placed on exhibition to guide prospective bidders. The contract form itself is now ready for the printer. Prospective bidders must file a bond with the comptroller for the faithful performance of the contract. Upon the date named the bids are opened by the head of the department, or his representative, in the presence of the competitors and a representative of the comptroller and the contract is awarded to the lowest bidder. The successful bidder files another bond with the comptroller and after all preliminary financial requirements are satisfied the comptroller approves the sureties and the contract becomes valid. After the date upon which the contract goes into effect those who are to use the goods make requisition on the storekeeper, who transmits it to the purchasing agent, who issues an order to the contractor, who makes delivery to the point designated; and the business of supplying the city in that instance has begun. This procedure is duplicated in all the other departments at the same time.

In the case of goods bought by open market order the procedure is simpler. Those who are to use the goods make requisition on their immediate superior, who approves and transmits it to the head of the department for his approval. The latter forwards it to the purchasing agent, who, at his discretion, gets prices from various dealers or not and then issues the order; and the goods are delivered. This procedure is also duplicated in all the other departments.

So far as possible supplies are bought from wholesalers; but in many instances, because the departments buy independently, the quantities are so divided as to preclude buying except from retailers. Coal, for instance, is so subdivided that it is bought from retailers in the city. If all the coal for the municipal government were bought in one transaction, a contract of such size would warrant the attention of mine owners. Coal pockets could be built in each borough and sufficient quantities stored to guard against a rising market or famine due to strikes. The cost of building these coal pockets would be only an initial expense and that of operating them would be slight in comparison with the great reduction in the cost of coal, which would be perennial. On the same principle, almost all other supplies could be bought from original producers and thus eliminate the middlemen's profits.

All this waste of money in purchasing supplies and time and labor of employees in duplication of the work, might be saved by the establishment of a properly organized department of purchase. It may seem that the present departments are numerous enough, but this addition should more than justify its existence in the great economy effected. It has been urged that the commissionership of such a department would be too great responsibility for one man. A commission might be formed of three men to divide the work. These should have as subordinates the present purchasing agents of the various departments, fitness to be determined by competitive examination, and other employees throughout the city at present engaged in supply work should be taken as the force for the new department. General storehouses should be established in the different boroughs and subsidiary storehouses in the outlying districts, if such are found necessary.

Under this arrangement all branches of the municipal government, with the approval of the officials in charge, would make requisition direct upon the department of purchase. In the case of goods bought under contract, all of the same kind would be bought under one contract; and in the case of goods bought by open market order, all of the same kind would be bought by one order. The change from many to one transaction would effect great economy.

Such a plan has been objected to on the ground that it would deprive the commissioners of the various departments of their power of purchase. On the other hand the change would be a relief. As a matter of fact, under the present method of purchasing little discretion is left to the commissioner except in his approval of the necessity of the purchase. The actual purchasing is delegated to the purchasing agent, or some other subordinate, and in the case of goods bought under contract it becomes a mere matter of routine, and in the case of goods bought by open market order any good purchasing agent, except for items too small for such consideration, gets estimates from several dealers. Little more is required of the commissioner than the final decision in controversies over the acceptability of goods delivered; but, as such controversies are frequent, this responsibility, from his point of view, is quite enough. By the plan proposed the commissioner would be relieved of this distasteful task and be allowed more time and energy for the more efficient administration of his department.

The work of the department of purchase might be apportioned in one of two ways: According to the kinds of supplies or according to the departments. By the first arrangement all lumber, for instance, would be bought by one buyer and his assistants; and by the second arrangement all supplies for the department of health, for instance, would be bought by one buyer and his assistants. In either case all the data collected by the department of purchase should, of course, be available for all the employees of that department. In no case should the prerogatives of the commissioners be curtailed, because they are held responsible for the administration of their departments. The necessity, or even the advisability, of expenditure should still be left entirely to the commissioners and the sole function of the department of purchase should be to provide every means for the best possible economy in purchasing.

All the supplies for the city of New York cost about $20,000,000 a year. By concentrating many transactions into one a saving should be effected which, at a conservative estimate, should reach 25 per cent, or $5,000,000 every year. As the price of supplies and the quantities required by the city increase from year to year, the total cost increases; but so should the saving effected by the proposed method increase proportionately. To this must be added saving in time by simplification of procedure and further saving in labor by reducing the present enormous multiplication of clerical work.

Any railroad or other large business organization which did not follow the method outlined above, would go out of business as promptly as the hypothetical landlady cited at the beginning of this article.

PUBLIC HEALTH VERSUS THE NOISE NUISANCE

BY IMOGEN B. OAKLEY[1]

Philadelphia

A FEW years ago I went to one of the college settlements of Philadelphia to speak to an audience of women toilers who had been gathered from the neighboring tenements. I told them what the city was doing for them, and what they could do for the city in return, and incidentally I asked them what they considered the greatest evil in their crowded tenement life.

One woman rose and said, "I speak for every woman here. What we cannot stand is the noise. It never stops. It is killing us. We work hard all day and need sleep and rest at night. No one can sleep till midnight and all the noise begins again at five. Many of us have husbands who work all night and must get their sleep during the day, but they get no sound sleep with all the noise that goes on about us. You can get away from the noise during the summer, but we cannot. We are right here in the middle of it all our lives. Now, what can your civic club do for us?"

I had to tell her we could do nothing. There are no laws against useless noise in Philadelphia. Complaints can be made, of course, under the general law of nuisance; but to go to a magistrate, make the necessary complaints, and attend a series of hearings would take more time and more money than any of those women have at their disposal. Although the civic club could do nothing then to help those tired-out women, it began at once an agitation against useless noise.

The first thing I did personally was to make a list of the useless noises which I could hear from my own window, and I found that between 5 a.m. and midnight there was an entirely useless and preventable noise on an average of every five minutes. I sent this list to a widely-read paper, and its publication brought me a shower of letters each one telling of some useless noise that tormented the writer and thanking me for bringing the subject of noise to the attention of the public. The large majority of these letters came from the tenement districts, and taught me two important facts: First, that the people of the slums do not like noise, as popularly supposed; they hate it, and second, the demand that useless noise be stilled is not merely to protect those who are ill, but to protect those who are well; to prevent them from becoming ill.

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[1] Mrs. Oakley is chairman of the committee on noise of the American Civic Association and for many years was chairman of the committee on civil service reform of the General Federation of Women's Clubs. She has been actively identified with civic movements during the past 25 years, holding at various times prominent positions.

Apologists for noise say that those who differ with them are nervous cranks; that they imagine discomfort when none exists; that they are the idle rich who would not hear the noise if they had something to keep their minds and bodies busy.

My numerous suffering correspondents disprove the theory. They are not the idle rich, they are the toiling poor, they have more than enough to do. Many of them never heard the words "nervous invalid," yet they say they are dying of noise. When they claim that constant noise is undermining their health, they are simply in accord with the best medical science. Dust and noise, say our physicians and sanitarians, are two great evils of the day. Dust because it steals into the remotest corners of our homes bearing with it countless miscroscopic enemies, and noise because of its destructive effect upon our nerves.

No arguments are needed to prove the effect of noise upon the auditory nerve. Doctor Clarence Blake of Boston, one of the most eminent of the world's aurists says: "Diseases of the ear are increasing with the increase of noise. If the noise of our cities is to continue, we shall be a deaf race. As the eye requires intervals of darkness so the ear requires intervals of silence to keep it in perfect health."

It is a singular thing that the ear is the only organ of sense that has no legal protection. The law forbids offensive odors. It insists upon the cleanliness of all articles which the public touches. It does not allow disgusting or indecent signs; billboards are condemned because they offend the eye. It enacts pure food rules and regulations, thereby protecting the health through the sense of taste, but it leaves the ear the helpless victim of every assaulting sound.

Logically the ear should receive the most protection from the law since it is itself defenseless. We can use deodorizers and disinfectants against foul smells; we can close our eyes to offensive sights, but our ears must remain open to the most offensive sounds. The ear, too, is the shortest avenue to the brain. The editor of the *Journal of Pediatrics* asked as long ago as 1897, "May it not be possible that much of our startling increase in insanity is due to the continuous noise of our cities? May not the brain be affected by the ceaseless assaults through the ear?" The *Boston Medical Surgical Journal* in 1890 declared noise to be "a nuisance and a danger." The *American Journal of Public Hygiene* in 1906 claimed that noise is harmful to healthy persons:

First, because it necessitates concentrated attention, thereby increasing the liability to nervous fatigue; and

Second, because it interferes with the necessary amount of sleep. Ordinary attention does not produce fatigue; it is a normal action of the brain, but when concentrated and absorbed attention is required, nervous fatigue is produced in exact proportion to the amount of concentration. To listen or to think in the midst of noise requires intense concentration, which produces nervous fatigue, and this fatigue produced and reproduced day after day leads indubitably to neurasthenia. Almost all sick persons are in a state of pathological fatigue, and loud, disagreeable noises increase this fatigue to the danger point.

The same journal is responsible for the statement that good mental work cannot be done in noisy surroundings. It is quite true that operatives in mills and drivers of rattling drays may seem to acquire a considerable immunity to noise, but we must remember that these occupations do not involve much thought, and moreover, as yet no one has tried to get at the sufferings which these operatives and drivers doubtless endure.

Habituation to noise may be possible to persons of exceptionally strong nerves and power of concentration, but even though habituation be seemingly achieved, the work done under the influence of noise is inferior to that done amid quiet surroundings.

On this same subject of habituation, Professor Sedgwick, of Boston, says that people in crowded cities are in a constant state of nervous fatigue and the fact that many of them do not like the quiet of the country is a proof of their pathological condition.

The noise apologists who insist that noise is not harmful when we become accustomed to it, must be reminded that we can grow so accustomed to foul air that fresh air becomes absolutely disagreeable, yet no one would argue from this that foul air is not injurious, or that it is as good for the lungs as fresh air.

But bad as are the nervous effects of continuous noise, sudden and intermittent noises are infinitely more to be dreaded. Each loud and sudden noise produces a distinct nerve-shock and these shocks often repeated cause a loss in nerve-vitality. Immunity to such noises can never be attained for the sound waves of the air thrown into violent action by a loud sudden noise, strike actual physical blows upon the auditory nerve and a constant succession of such blows inevitably injures and finally destroys the delicate mechanism of the ear. Bells, whistles, gongs, and the startling shrieks of street-vendors are therefore more injurious to the health than the continuous roar of railway trains, or the monotonous whirr of machinery in mills and factories.

The *London Lancet* declares that street noises are potent factors in undermining the health of city-dwellers, especially brain-workers, making them neurasthenic and unfit for long-continued effort, and it warns the public that as a national danger the possible "Yellow Peril" fades into insignificance beside the present and actual "Yelling Peril" which makes pandemonium of our streets.

Under the heading "Police news" a London paper reports that a boy was taken in charge for whistling and shouting at night. The magistrate inquired about the neighborhood. "Neighborhood of gentry," said the officer. "First-class people need first-class sleep," was the decision of the magistrate, and the boy was committed for disturbing the peace. The sentiment is growing that all classes of people need first-class sleep. According to the *Philadelphia Medical Journal* every physician and every educated person should wage incessant war against unnecessary noises:

First, because it is certain they increase the sick-rate by murdering sleep. Second, because they increase the death-rate by destroying the vital and recuperative powers of the sick. Third, because they dull and brutalize the nervous system of those who have to withstand their pathogenic influence. Fourth, because they serve to make the sensitive and cultured separate themselves in their search for quiet from the masses, thus serving to intensify the license of the noise-makers by lessening the checks upon their crimes.

Dr. Ernest J. Lederle, late health commissioner of New York City, in an address before the international congress of scientists, held in St. Louis in 1903, asserted that nervous prostration and our intense American excitability are due quite as much to the nerve-racking noise of our cities as to the strain and rush of our daily lives, and he was convinced that the time had come—and this was in 1903—when physicians must take cognizance of the fact that noise is an element to consider in the cause of disease, and that the prevention of unnecessary noise is as much the duty of the medical profession as the prevention of unnecessary dirt. Doctor Lederle called upon boards of health throughout the country to take prompt action for the suppression of all noises that cannot be proved to be unavoidable.

All of the authorities I have quoted agree that loud sudden noises are the most injurious to the nerves and they agree also that whistles, bells, gongs, street pianos, the crowing of roosters, the barking of dogs, and the outcries of street-vendors are loud and sudden noises, and must be stopped except when they can be proved to be unavoidable. Bells and whistles cannot be classed as unavoidable noises in this day of cheap and universal clocks. Even church-bells, tender as are the memories connected with them, and pleasant as they sound in the far-away distance, are disturbing as near neighbors. I have a letter from a stenographer—and stenography is classed with the fatigue-producing occupations since it requires concentrated attention—in which she says, "I take rapid dictation all day amid the distracting noise at the corner of Fifth and Chestnut streets, and I go home tired out and needing rest. The street-vendors and street-pianos prevent sleep in the early evening, and I am wakened every morning at 5 by the bells of a near-by church. They ring at 5, at 5.30, at 6, at 6.30, at 7, at 7.30 and then it is time for me to get up, having been deprived of two hours' sleep by what seems to be an entirely unnecessary noise."

Our American public opinion against aggressive sectarianism ought to support any attempt to prohibit the ringing of church-bells. For why should a Quaker be wakened by a Roman Catholic bell; or a Presbyterian by an Episcopal bell, or a Methodist by a Baptist bell? If church-bells could be so constructed that they would be guaranteed to waken only the members of the church in which they are hung, they could be tolerated, but so long as they continue to arouse believers in opposing faiths, our non-sectarian laws ought to be strong enough to silence them.

We shall have to consider that the gongs of the automobiles and the trolleys are to a certain extent unavoidable at present, but the international congress of aurists that met in Boston in 1913 maintained that all swift-moving vehicles should carry a horn emitting a musical note, or scale, and that this musical sound should be the same for all vehicles; the startling, clanging gong to be resorted to only in sudden danger to life.

We can find no excuse for the street pianos. My correspondents from the tenements beg to have them suppressed. "The children have their public playgrounds now," they say, "and do not need the diversion of the street-piano." The street-musician has really developed into a blackmailer. He has learned that the noise he makes is disagreeable, and he refuses to leave unless he is paid for leaving.

According to a story emanating from a New York paper, an Italian organ-grinder in that city was arrested for some trivial offense.

"What do you make a week?" asked the magistrate.

"About twenta-five dolla," answered the grinder.

"What!" exclaimed the magistrate, "twenty-five dollars a week for grinding an organ!"

"Oh no, sare, notta for grind; for shutta up and go way."

The objection to street-music is no new thing. More than a generation ago a number of distinguished Englishmen addressed a memorial to parliament on this very subject. The letter was written by Charles Dickens and among those who signed it were Tennyson, Millais, Holman Hunt, John Leech, Wilkie Collins, and, of course, Thomas Carlyle.

"Your correspondents," wrote Charles Dickens, "are professors and practitioners of one or other of the arts and sciences. In their devotion to their pursuits, tending to the peace and comfort of mankind, they are daily interrupted, harassed, worried, wearied, and driven nearly mad by street-musicians. They are even made especial objects of persecution by brazen performers on brazen instruments, beaters of drums, grinders of organs, bangers of banjos, clashers of cymbals, worriers of fiddles, and bellowers of ballads, for no sooner does it become known to those producers of horrible sounds that any of your correspondents have particular need of quiet in their own homes than the said homes are beleaguered by discordant hosts seeking to be bought off."

Street vendors can be silenced without injury to their trade if housekeepers will follow the advice offered by my correspondents from the tenements. Written notices saying that ice, coal, fruit, vegetables, or what not, are desired within, can be placed in the window for all dealers in such commodities to see. This simple plan, which prevails in New England cities, saves time to the housekeeper and vocal energy to the vendor, beside relieving from annoyance all that large class of people who do not desire to buy.

Newsboys can sell as many papers by offering them quietly, as by standing on corners and giving vent to inarticulate howls. It will be difficult to silence these youngsters for they really enjoy shouting. I once stopped a boy who I knew belonged to a well-to-do family and asked, "Why are you selling papers?" He grinned, and answered, "Because I like to holler."

In point of fact, all newsboys should be removed from the temptations of the streets, and sent to continuation-schools where they could learn trades that would ensure them an honest living, and their places as sellers of papers should be taken by elderly men and women and cripples.

If noise is injurious to the nervous system, it follows that it is the unrelenting foe of the thinker, the writer, the artist, and the musician. Edmund Yeates, the Celtic poet, asks why America has made so small a contribution to the fine arts, and then answers the question himself:—"I stayed in an American town," he says, "where a railway train with clanging bell went up and down the main street every hour of the day and night. Perhaps the arts await till some Apollo shall arise and slay that python."

Boards of health, as Doctor Lederle says, have power to put an end to senseless and useless noises. If they can compel a man to be vaccinated lest he give his neighbor smallpox, they can surely compel him to cease from noises that produce nervous prostration. If they can prevent him from polluting his neighbor's water-supply with typhoid germs, they can forbid him from congesting his neighbor's air with sounds that breed insanity.

Apologists for noise urge with an apparent show of reason that since there must be in every city so much noise that is unavoidable, it is foolish to rail against the relatively small amount that is avoidable, but the unavoidable noise of the city is the very reason why the avoidable noises should be stilled. There is so much noise that we must endure that it has become an imperative duty to the public health to silence all those noises that are unnecessary. The prayers of the night workers must not go unanswered.

Modern civilization brings with it much labor that cannot cease with the going down of the sun. Shall the street-cleaners, telegraphers, night-watchmen, railway-employees, toilers in iron and steel, printers, reporters, editors, doctors, nurses—shall all these great and growing armies of toilers that work through the night for the public comfort and convenience, be allowed to take their needful sleep during the day, or shall their rest be broken and their lives shortened by the utterly useless noises made by bells and whistles, shouting vendors, shrieking newsboys, and blaring street-pianos? No one would be permitted as a means of advertisement to flash light into the weary eyes of these sleepers, yet vendors, pedlers, newsboys and grinders flash all manner of noises into their ears with impunity. If such noises are to go on, it must be in places where sleep is unnecessary, and illness unknown.

THE MOVEMENT FOR CITY STREET TREES—A SURVEY

BY CARL BANNWART[1]

Newark, N. J.

THE appearance of a city is its chief material asset. The calibre of a city's people, as a whole, is exactly expressed in the outward and visible aspect of their municipal home. Now there is nothing that gives tone to this aspect like well-kept parks and well-treed streets. More and more this is coming to be noted; and increasingly is attention being given to the adorning of city streets with trees. Also it is seen that to depend on private initiative in this matter will not do. What is needed is to bring the planting, nurture, care and protection of street trees under municipal control, and such control concentrated in a single department specializing in the one thing, viz.: street trees.

What municipal control of shade trees can do may best be illustrated by what it has done; and as we have first-hand knowledge of what it has done in Newark, we may be pardoned for citing the experience of that town—though it is our own. In 1904, Newark, acting under a state law, created a shade tree commission. To this body (of three members) was committed the "exclusive and absolute control and power to plant, set out, maintain, protect and care for shade trees in any of the public highways of the municipality." In 1905 a supplementary law transferred to the commission's control the care and improvement of "the public parks belonging to the municipality or any department in the government thereof." In 1906 the commission was empowered "to pass, enact, alter, amend and repeal ordinances for the protection, regulation and control" of such parks and "of all shade trees" situate "in the public highways" of the city. And, now, briefly, what has come of this?

1. It at once raised the status of the then existent street trees. These fine, old stately growths which had come down to us out of the past from the fathers, but which for so long had been strangers to considerate treatment, were now seen to be set apart as objects of government's special care, as wards of a municipal department specially created to care for and protect them, and empowered to enforce considerate treatment of them. Here was the germ of what has since unfolded into a public sentiment which had not theretofore existed: A new and unique sentiment in favor of the trees, that goes on increasing.

2. It has saved thousands of the older trees which would otherwise have

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[1] Secretary Shade Tree Commission of Newark.

perished through insect attack, through the carelessness or malice of men, the bitings of horses.

3. It has resulted in the setting out of nearly 27,000 young trees, 180 miles of Newark's streets having been thus planted since the inception of the shade tree commission. Picture this! One hundred and eighty miles of new plantings, adorning the streets, gladdening the eye, cooling and purifying the air, and enhancing the city's beauty and health and wealth.

4. The creation of a tree department has resulted in the establishment of a city nursery.

5. The inclusion of the city parks in the work of the shade tree commission has brought them under specialized care, so that these parks have put on new beauty. Washington, Lincoln, Military and the other parks are a standing exhibit to passing thousands every day of what can be achieved for civic beauty by the embodiment of the shade tree idea in a municipal commission.

6. It has secured both for street trees and for parks scientific, technical care. The importance of this cannot be overestimated. The treatment of trees, as also of parks, is an expert profession. Expert planting, pruning, mulching, spraying, etc., are absolutely necessary, not only to the welfare and beauty, but to the very life of the trees. Take the operations of pruning and spraying, for examples. When these have been left to private initiative, they have either been entirely neglected or the operation was so inexpertly performed (in many cases) as to result in the ruin of the tree.

7. The creation of a shade tree commission made possible a most fruitful educational propaganda concerning trees. The work of planting the streets and beautifying the parks of the city has been in itself a direct educative influence, as is obvious. But in addition to this the commission has been able to awaken, encourage and stimulate an enlightened interest in trees, in the several values of them, in their beauty, their health-giving qualities, their agency in cooling and purifying the air, their real estate worth.

Such are some, but by no means all, of the uses which a municipal tree department may serve. It goes without saying that the results pointed out could hardly be achieved by an individual, or by any body of individuals other than a municipal commission. Such results, it is manifest, are practicable only to a municipal body, clothed with authority.

But now for a look abroad. How is the cause faring up and down this big land of ours?

Among the larger cities which go in for the municipal planting, care and control of street trees, Washington is easily foremost. It has been at it a long while; it has kept to a continuous policy; and it has used horse sense. Many avenues have been planted and now present delightful vistas of mature trees; yet Washington does not rest on its laurels. There is much proof to even the casual observer that the trees are continually watched and tended. When a gap is created by the failure of this or that larger tree, that gap is promptly closed with a new planting. And it is manifest that in planning for the streets the trees were part of the original concept, and were *not* lugged in later as a mere afterthought. Accordingly, the sidewalks are everywhere wide enough to permit the planting of trees, and this is so even on business streets. Washington is the youngest of the great capitals; but it was started upon a broad foundation. And with the years the concept of its founder is unfolding in splendor.

Buffalo deserves mention next after Washington. It has had a park board for a long time, but has had a bureau of street forestry for only seven years. In 1908, the park board created this new bureau and went to work with vigor on the street tree proposition. From the beginning they had a good start in the matter of parkways already planted. In the six years they have set out 15,000 street trees. They have had their own troubles with the insect problem; but not so much as elsewhere. Owing to the cold winters the pests are not so numerous there, either as to number or species. The Buffalonians are generous in their appropriation of funds for tree work. Their tree department is one of the most efficient in the country.

At Rochester one finds a bright city addressing itself to its tree problems through a municipal tree department, lately created. The same is true of three towns not far away, Ithaca (Cornell), Glens Falls, and Geneva, the latter the seat of the New York State agricultural experiment station and of Hobart College.

Syracuse is another community that has lately joined the shade tree fraternity, and, moreover, is working at it. Syracuse University has a school of forestry, recently established, including the first definite course on street silviculture. By means of its extension department it is aiding in New York state in the shade tree idea. The city has recently appointed a city forester, a graduate of that school—a good beginning. The park superintendent and the city forester have exclusive control of existing trees and power to set out new plantings. With proper appreciation of trees as a decorative factor and of the splendid possibilities of that city set on its seven hills, we may expect results if the municipal authorities will grant sufficient funds. At present they give about $7,000 per year for the maintenance of their 45,000 trees, which means about 15 cents per tree per annum. Much of this is spent in taking down dead trees. (The park department of the city of Paris pays $1.25 per tree per annum; the city of Newark, 50 cents.)

The department of street forestry is bringing its guns to bear upon those having control of the purse-strings in Syracuse, pointing out that time is the greatest factor in creating well-treed streets, and that no time is to be lost therefore in setting out the trees and nursing them along. At the best, there will be a wait of ten years after planting before considerable results become manifest. Young trees glorify the vista by the second year, but a decade is needed to bring about even a promise of the stately beauty of their full maturity.

Baltimore has just awakened to the necessity for a municipal tree department. Baltimore is within an hour's ride of Washington, and the shining example of the latter city is bound to have effect. It has broad residential streets; and this of course works to the great advantage of street trees as also their congeners, street parkways. In other words street conditions as related to planting possibilities are superb. And even these conditions are being improved by a process of narrowing roadways and widening sidewalks. Moreover the paving commission, in letting contracts for the prosecution of its own work, so conditions such contracts as to provide for the setting out of trees. Again, Baltimore has a generous and unique source of revenue for the maintenance of its parks and parkways. Every time you board a trolley car and drop your nickel in the slot, you are dropping nine per cent of that nickel into the park maintenance fund. This annual fund which is now about $600,000, and is increasing, is used at present for park work only; but the time is coming, without any doubt, when a portion of it will be employed in the planting, nurture, and maintenance of street trees.

Baltimore also has a city forester. For the present, he is the municipality's representative and agent in the matter of street trees. He is well supported in his efforts by tree-loving citizens of all classes except in the important matter of appropriation.

We wish we had better things to report of Philadelphia; but at present the care of street trees there forms but a sort of side line in the work of the park department which has been charged with the control of the trees under Pennsylvania shade tree law. Unofficial neighborhood "campaigns" are helping some. The city appropriated $20,000 this year for its trees. Not a large sum as compared with the $34,000 of Newark (which has much less population), or the $50,000 of Buffalo (also less population), or the $43,000 of Washington (still less population).

Pittsburgh, Wilkes-Barre, and West Chester are among the other communities that have accepted the state law and are assuming the care of the street trees.

Cleveland, advertising itself as the "Forest City," is beginning to handle the problem; and there are Urbana, Alton, and Peoria doing the same. Peoria's chamber of commerce is taking the matter up; a straw that shows the way the wind blows. Urbana's beginnings are under the auspices of neighborhood clubs and the tutelage of the University of Illinois. The university teaches by lectures, given gratis.

Chicago, too, is in the procession. It has had a working city forester for five years. Now these things go to show that the great middle west is waking up; and when that energetic country once takes hold in earnest, there'll be something doing.

Our own people in New Jersey make a fine local and collective showing. There are fifty-two shade tree commissions throughout the state each keeping arbor day all the year round in its own little corner. When you consider that each of these commissions radiates information and influence for the municipal care of trees, that the state forester, pathologist and entomologist in season and out of season dispense expert advice and encouragement—and that the state department of instruction also gives the shade tree idea an occasional boost, you begin to see that if the progress is gradual it is nevertheless steady and increasing in size, strength and going qualities.

Newark has planted 27,000 trees in ten years and is jealously guarding them. Jersey City has set out 10,000 in eight years. East Orange and South Orange, East Rutherford, Passaic, Irvington, Belleville, Nutley, Montclair, all of New Jersey, have each done considerable planting reaching into the thousands and are studying and solving the problems for their cities.

Greater New York is taking hold in all her boroughs. Not so long ago, as men not yet old remember, Manhattan Isle as to many of its residence streets was a veritable grove of trees. What "old New Yorker" can forget the glory of the verdure of the olden East Broadway, or of Elm street that took its name from the towers of spreading green that lined its walks, or of old Marion street with its maples, or Prince street, or Lafayette place, or Waverly place, or Washington place, and so many, many thoroughfares of the fine old town all "awave with trees." But a perverse generation came upon the scene, and in the name of progress the "practical" man had his benighted, Philistine way with the trees.

New York has begun to repent, and to lament its folly, and the first stirrings of a purpose to make reparation are manifest. Private individuals and civic organizations are at work—and successfully so—reviving the ancient New York spirit that loved and fostered trees. These private workers have made rapid and important advances in the last few years, insomuch there is now ground for believing that government will take the thing up and create a tree department. One of the encouraging signs is that the park department has taken the street tree proposition under its wing and is acting as foster-parent to it. However, what is needed is a separate department that will make street tree work its one work, concentrating and specializing on that.

And when this has come to pass may New York be found working under a statute like New Jersey's, and here's wishing the same for all our sister cities up and down the land. For New Jersey, we make bold to say, has the model shade tree law. Imitation is the sincerest flattery, and we are thus flattered by Pennsylvania and other neighboring states adopting and adapting New Jersey's shade tree law.

Springfield, Mass., is a striking example of the fine results of a municipality making it its business to care for its trees. Walk up State street from Main! Note the majestic elms on this broad highway. As you pass the intersecting streets, look north and south on each and see, as far as eye can reach to left and right, the towering rows of lofty trees waving their green tops in the breeze, the sun glinting through the verdant roof that forms an arch high up above the road.

The like amplitude of stately old trees, some of them of century age, adorns all the older residence districts of Springfield; while "on the hill" where the city is spreading towards the east the newly opened streets are glorious with young trees. Both old trees and young are thriving. No tree that is dead, or unsightly past remedy, is allowed to stand. The city takes it down forthwith. The most sedulous care is bestowed on all trees, whether old or young. All this, remember, by the municipality itself, through its city forester. Appropriations for tree work are generous. The like policy prevails, and the like results are manifest, in nearly all the municipalities of Massachusetts.

There is not space to tell of Hartford, and New Haven, and Providence, of Charleston, and Savannah, and Atlanta, of New Orleans also, and St. Louis, of San Francisco and Palo Alto and Riverside and the rest. All these are entitled to a good report of municipal shade tree work, or its beginnings and stand as encouragements to all shade tree brethren everywhere, and cheer us on to higher things.

Further, the agricultural experiment stations, the universities, and the state foresters have taken to the movement. Previously these were occupied with only the academic phase, but of late they have entered into its practical direction within their state boundaries. The state experiment stations of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Wyoming; the Cornell University landscape staff, the Syracuse University school of forestry, the Illinois University school of landscape architecture, issue free compendiums and give free lectures to spread the principles of correct planting and modes of nurture and maintenance.

In New Jersey the state forester has brought about a state federation of shade tree commissions. Already this has achieved much and gives promise of achieving much more. It has, for one thing, already solidified shade tree sentiment throughout the state; and given new power to the shade tree propaganda. At the conferences of this federation, tree officials, foresters, entomologists and pathologists discuss tree methods and problems with rich practical results. Action has been taken toward a more stringent quarantine to save the state from invasion by insect pests and tree diseases from beyond its boundaries. The state plant pathologist also visits and bestows expert advice wherever requested by local communities, no expense to be entailed on such communities other than the expert's travelling expenses.

Much, very much, remains to be done. The shade tree movement is yet far from "the stature of a perfect man." The present is, in comparison with what ought to be, a "day of small things." Nevertheless a survey of the movement throughout the country yields data big with promise for the future. There is every reason to be of good courage and to go forward.

MUNICIPAL BONDS AS POPULAR INVESTMENTS

WHY ARE MUNICIPAL BONDS GROWING MORE POPULAR AS INVESTMENTS; AND WHAT EFFECT IS THE WAR HAVING UPON MUNICIPAL FINANCING

BY HOWARD F. BEEBE[1]
New York

THE very noticeable increase in the interest of investors in municipal bonds has been attributed by the writers of many financial articles solely to the exemption from the operations of the federal income tax which this form of investment enjoys. Granting that this exemption has had an important influence in bringing about a wider interest in municipal bonds, a careful study will show many other influences working toward the same end.

In order to trace and appreciate the relative importance of these influences, it is necessary to retrospect to about 1890 which will carry one back to the severe business and financial depression of the early '90's. At this time the rapidly accumulating wealth of that character which seeks employment by investment in bonds was finding it increasingly difficult to secure a relatively attractive return on municipal obligations of the larger and better known communities, and even then was looking to bonds of the newer western and southwestern communities to obtain a satisfactory income return. Many investors whose natural disposition was to purchase municipal securities were turning to other channels, chiefly railroads and so-called public utility corporations, for the investment of their funds. However, with the first signs of business depression and decreasing earnings on the part of the railroads, attention again was centered upon municipal bonds with the result that except during the acute stages of the depression municipal securities were much sought after and this resulted in a steady rise in their prices and correspondingly decreasing return on the investment until in the period between 1900 and 1902 they had attained such a high level that a great many investors again turned their attention to other forms of security. The rapidly increasing deposits of savings banks throughout the eastern portion of the United States and the restricted fields in which these deposits might be legally invested contributed largely to the high level of prices attained by municipal bonds during this period. Although the 1907 panic was of comparatively short duration, its aftermath brought about a heavy demand for municipal bonds and it was only a very short time after conditions had readjusted themselves when they reached a level of prices fully as high as had prevailed prior to this great financial disturbance.

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[1] Manager, Municipal Department, Harris, Forbes & Co., New York.

These brief references to what actually happened to the price level of municipal bonds lead one to the conclusion that the present demand is largely attributable to the disposition on the part of investors of all classes, both institutional and private, to turn under unusual and disturbed conditions to that form of investment which is freest from possibility of loss and to that end be willing to accept a smaller return than would satisfy them under normal conditions.

Again reverting to the period of 1890 we find many investors who still remembered the many defaults and compromises growing out of the conditions produced by the Civil War and the issuance of so-called "bonus bonds" to aid the construction of new railroads, the establishment of manufacturing and other industrial plants by communities with more ambition than sound judgment and securities which were obligations in name only of the municipalities issuing them. That these troubles grew out of unwise and in many cases dishonest financing and that the losses were incurred by individuals seeking a rate of return on their investment out of all proportion to what could have been secured from conservatively issued bonds, was overlooked by a large proportion of investors who knew of the various litigations revolving about this class of security, with the natural result that a very decided prejudice was established in the minds of many intelligent investors and the market for municipal bonds except those of the larger and better known cities was thereby considerably restricted. That a large majority of the defaults and repudiations in connection with state and municipal bonds were the logical outcome of loose and vicious public financing is well known by everyone who has given the subject any study. As the years have passed and municipal financing has gradually been placed on a more scientific basis, defaults and losses have become almost unknown and a great many investors who held an unreasoning prejudice against municipal bonds have come to realize that many of the repudiations of the past were more or less justified, and that those who have used reasonable caution and care in making their selections have had no cause for complaint. It has also become more generally known that a repudiating municipality has no chance of permanently evading the payment of any of its justly contracted indebtedness where the issue has passed through the hands of a competent and reliable investment banking house which can be depended upon to make its own independent investigation, see that the bonds are legally and regularly issued and to take necessary and energetic action to obtain satisfaction in case of delay in payment or actual default.

Of prime importance to many investors in bonds of all classes is their ready convertibility into cash or their use as collateral in borrowing large sums of money. Municipal issues as a rule have been quickly placed in the hands of permanent holders and therefore few have been listed or at all actively dealt in when listed, on the important exchanges. This resulted in a false belief that a ready market could not be found without undue sacrifice in times of financial stringency. This belief was heightened by the practice of some municipalities selling their bonds to local investors without having the legal proceedings in connection therewith passed upon by competent and well known legal advisers and who took no thought of the possible necessity of reselling. When such bonds seek a market those banking houses who would buy them are restrained by two important considerations: first, the fear that through some serious legal mistake by the city's counsel, which is usually composed of attorneys appointed more for political reasons than for legal ability, the bonds have not been legally issued; and secondly, because responsible bankers do not feel justified in asking their clientele to buy bonds which they in turn would find difficult to remarket.

The experience of our own house over a long period of years covering a number of serious financial disturbances is that a block of municipal bonds, issued by either a large or small municipality, which had been originally purchased by well known and reputable bankers, can be marketed at a satisfactory price under conditions which make it impossible to sell any other form of security except at a great sacrifice. In fact, clients of ours desiring to raise money during the 1907 panic found it more profitable in a large majority of cases to sell municipal bonds than other securities. During the period of great uncertainty following the opening of the present conflict in Europe, municipal bonds were the first class of security to recover their market equilibrium, and the demand for them continues unabated with the natural result of a steadily advancing market price. The recent protracted period during which the important stock exchanges were closed to trading served to impress upon many people that "listing" does not necessarily mean ready marketability under any and all conditions.

During long periods of great industrial and commercial activity marked by much real or apparent prosperity there is a notable absence of scrutiny of the possibilities of financial trouble and loss under less favorable conditions. In the buoyant spirit of the time a desire for increase of income causes the investor to be less critical and he waives his conservative requirements in the selection of his securities. From about the latter part of the year 1896 this country has enjoyed an almost continuous period of industrial, commercial and financial prosperity and expansion with its accompanying accumulation of wealth. What, then, was more natural than the growing belief that the old rules for the selection of investments were needlessly conservative? However, with decreasing industrial earnings, the reducing or passing of dividends, defaults in the payment of interest or principal on poorly secured bonds, realization that real estate does not always sell for more than is paid for it, there comes a reaction and investors give more thought to the safeguarding of their principal and are willing to accept the relatively smaller return which goes with the more conservative security. The recruits to the ranks of municipal bond buyers in the past six or seven months has been greater than at any time during my experience of seventeen years in the investment banking business. One very noticeable and interesting feature of the present situation is the large number of active business men who are purchasers of municipal bonds. As a rule, they are seeking comparatively short maturities with the expectation of selling their bonds or using them as collateral for loans as soon as the needs of their business require more capital.

A comparison of municipal bonds in the various corresponding grades with railroad, public utility and industrial bonds will show them to return a lower income at all times, which of course is justified by their freedom from losses caused by depressed business conditions, poor management, inimical legislation, etc. This difference has in recent years tended to decrease, due no doubt to the increasing supply of municipal bonds as the country has developed and the municipalities have taken upon themselves the construction of public utilities requiring the expenditure of large sums of money which heretofore had to a much larger extent been owned and operated by privately owned corporations. The confidence of the investing public in other types of investment under prosperous conditions as before mentioned and the readiness with which they are then purchased at a small difference in yearly income has also been a factor. When the prospective investor cast about for a security of the highest degree of safety as he did upon realizing the alarming state of affairs attending the sudden declaration of war in Europe, and found that municipal bonds would yield very close to the income from other forms of high grade security, it is not surprising that he was at once attracted to them. How long they may be obtained at such relatively attractive terms cannot be foretold, but it is certain for the present they are to be purchased at a most inviting level of prices.

To the net income from municipal bonds must be added the freedom from tax as personal property in many cases, and the interest is not subject to the federal income tax law. Most people seem to assume that in drawing this last named statute, Congress exempted the interest from municipal bonds for political reasons, but it is more than likely that the framers were convinced that not to do so would have been sufficient grounds for the courts to hold the law, or at least that portion of it providing that such income be treated as taxable, unconstitutional. That this would have been unconstitutional is held by many able lawyers and they point to the famous decision of the United States supreme court in the case of *Pollock* vs. *Farmers Loan and Trust Company* in which it was held that the federal income tax law of 1894 was unconstitutional and serving as an important precedent for future legislation. Where an individual's taxable income does not exceed $20,000 per annum, the federal income tax saving would not be great; assuming the investment to net five per centum per annum, it amounts to five hundredths of one per cent and of course to a corresponding amount in proportion to the annual yield. However, as the amount of the annual net income increases and becomes subject to the "additional tax" provision of the law, this exemption becomes of greater importance and reaches the point where it in effect adds thirty-five hundredths of one per cent to the net income from the investment; for an example, to such an individual the net income from a municipal bond yielding 4½ per cent is equivalent to 4.815 per cent from a security not exempt. This has no doubt had a decided influence on persons of great wealth in their determination to invest at least a portion of their funds in municipal bonds. This tax exemption feature appeals to another class of individuals for a somewhat different reason; it is well known that the very burdensome and foolish tax laws of many states dealing with taxation of personal property have led, in fact, driven large numbers of persons, who would cheerfully pay any reasonable taxes, to avoid payments of tax on a substantial portion of their invested property. Under the laws of their respective states they have been obliged to file an annual statement of their property holdings and in most cases to swear to its accuracy. While the federal income tax law provides explicitly for the keeping secret of the returns made thereunder many people fear the possibility of this information coming to the hands of their local tax officials, in which event they would not only become liable for back taxes but under the laws of some states for heavy penalties as well. One does not wonder why such persons find a strong attraction in municipal bonds, independent of their annual return, as the income does not have to be even mentioned in their income tax return, for that purpose being treated as if it had not been received. Still a third class are attracted by the fact that the vexatious "certificates of ownership" do not have to accompany the collection of interest on municipal bonds. The writer recently helped a wealthy investor to make up his income tax return and despite his income being well over $100,000 per year, he did not have to file a return as less than $3,000 was derived from sources other than municipal securities.

The rapid increase in the indebtedness of municipalities has been much commented upon of late. The alarm with which this tendency has been viewed by many students of municipal affairs is hardly justified by a careful study of *all* the conditions and facts involved.

If the municipality of to-day did not afford more service of various kinds to its inhabitants and taxpayers, and they are one and the same whether they pay their money directly to the tax receiver or not, than the one of twenty or even five years ago, we would indeed have reason for concern. I venture to say that any reader of this article would find it hard to call to mind any city of size which has not greatly improved in recent years, and if he can it would be one in which he would prefer not to reside. This improved condition cannot be attained without the expenditure of money. Why then should we not measure the results of expenditures at the time of considering the debts created in connection therewith? A perusal of the United States census reports will throw some very interesting light on this subject, particularly those figures dealing with the assets of the various cities. Suffice it to say that the figures set forth therein, particularly those dealing with the "realizable" and "unrealizable" assets, as they are termed, will tend to dispel the grave misgivings of those who have them. Should one care to carefully compile all the various services which his local government performs in his behalf and their cost to him if done by private agencies and which twenty-five years ago were so attended to and paid for, I have no doubt he would view his growing tax bills with less concern; and speaking of tax bills leads me to state that so long as they are the necessary accompaniments of public debts they will act as a powerful and efficient brake on the vehicle of municipal progress, whose motive power is supplied by money. If one has doubts of this, let him listen to the din now being raised by a multitude of taxpayers in New York City. Many of these same people a few years ago were loudest in their clamors for public improvements. To be sure, many were real estate holders and speculators who expected to dispose of their taxable property to others at advanced prices, and had not anticipated the paying of increased tax bills themselves. It should be borne in mind that many of the most expensive municipal improvements are or will be self supporting, and in numerous instances the debts in connection therewith are being amortized and will be eventually retired.

This logically brings us to the laws governing the creation and payment of public debt. It is not so many years ago that the statutes of many eastern and southern states made very inadequate provision for the payment of the principal of loans negotiated by their sub-divisions, while now there are but few which do not require that annual taxes in sufficient amount to pay the entire indebtedness as it matures shall be levied and collected. And few indeed are those which by constitutional or legislative enactment seek to restrict the taxing power to the point of making it uncertain that they will be able to promptly meet their debts under any and all conditions. Alabama is still in that unenviable position, but there are encouraging signs there that the thinking people of the state, and that as usual does not seem to include the members of her legislature, are awakening to the fact that they are paying more than their neighbors in the adjoining states for money borrowed for public purposes. The reason is generally known by well posted bankers and investors throughout the country and the people of Alabama have refused entirely too long to listen to good advice on the subject. The readers of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW are, no doubt, well acquainted with the admirable law which became operative in Massachusetts January 1, 1914 and which deals very effectively with all public financing in that state.[1] Such widespread comment has been made upon the merits of the new Massachusetts law, that the assumption by many has been that numerous other states have been and are as lax as Massachusetts had been in the past. This is not the case. My own belief is that Massachusetts in correcting a long-standing abuse may find she has swung too far in the opposite direction. Why should the taxpayers of the next twenty or thirty years be called upon to liquidate the entire debt created at this period for the acquisition of lands and the constructing of permanent improvements, which will permanently benefit the community and bring a continuous revenue for an indefinite time? It would seem that such debt could be amortized over a span of fifty years with perfect safety. Too much emphasis, on the other hand, cannot be made upon the importance of paying the last of a public debt within the life of the improvements made with the proceeds of the loan.

To summarize the reasons for the pronounced and growing popularity of municipal bonds with investors, I should say the most potent are the following:

(a) The long-standing prejudices have gradually worn away under the better understanding of the reasons for old defaults and repudiations, and the knowledge that there will be no repetition of those unfortunate conditions which brought them about.

(b) A realization that they can be marketed under unfavorable financial conditions as well or better than other forms of property.

(c) The enlightenment which has come in recent years on the fundamental weaknesses of all private or corporate securities as compared with the fundamental strength of securities payable by the taxing power.

(d) The relatively good income which may now be had from an investment in this class of security.

(e) The obvious advantages under the federal income tax law, and the certainty that this tax will grow heavier rather than lighter.

(f) The growing scope of municipal functions insures a steady supply of all grades of municipal bonds.

(g) The steadily improving laws governing the issuance and payment of public debts.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, pp. 474 and 682.

That the war in Europe has played a definite part in municipal financing up to the present time is certain.[1] Whether it will bear with equal force later is not so certain although it will no doubt continue to have some bearing on all forms of finances for many years to come. The disturbance caused by the declaration of war served to emphasize the decided and fundamental differences between securities payable from taxes and those dependent upon the successful and profitable operation of privately owned enterprises. This has resulted in a widespread increase in the interest of the investing public in municipal bonds to the end that it is comparatively easy for municipalities to borrow on advantageous terms such funds as they need. Authorization of new loans has not appeared in any great quantity as yet, most of the financing being for the purpose of funding temporary obligations or of paying for work actually contracted for before August 1. At the November elections when many loans were voted upon by the electors there was a noticeable disposition to vote down any but the most needed improvements, and if human inclination runs true to form this tendency will continue as long as business and industrial conditions continue in an unsatisfactory or even uncertain state, and taxpayers "feel poor."

The end of the war will witness the necessity of funding the enormous war loans which are being made so prodigally in a temporary form. Will these evidences of governmental debt of the leading old world nations come here in large quantities? The answer to this question is one which will have a tremendous influence on the course of all financing in this country, but that answer depends on so many developments which the wisest cannot foresee at this time, that he would be a rash man indeed who would dare to make any definite predictions. We may however speculate on how results abroad may affect us here. It is very generally agreed that any terms of peace which do not insure a lasting cessation of hostilities would leave matters in a deplorable state. It is certain that under such a condition but little of the European government debt would lodge here. If, however, the contrary prevails there is the chance that home financing would be obliged to compete. The physical and financial conditions of the nations at war at the end of conflict would also have to be taken into account, as they would bear directly upon the recuperative power of those countries and the ability to pay their staggering loads of debt caused by the greatest economic waste the world has ever known. That debt created for no human good should be paid in full in a short term of years seems the only sound finance, yet it appears certain this millstone will hang about the neck of the old world for a long time. Most holders of municipal bonds have been actuated in their purchases by a conservatism that will probably tend to restrain them from investing heavily if at all in foreign government securities. On the other hand, other classes of investors will no doubt purchase them if they are offered on alluring terms, and this will absorb their funds and corporate financing will suffer and be obliged to pay a higher rate for the money it must have. Thus in turn will the municipal buyer be attracted to other home securities he would buy, if the terms are sufficiently attractive, and it is likely that the municipalities will find it necessary to pay a correspondingly higher rate for their borrowing. To confound the situation still more, it is well established that great conflicts between nations, with their consequent stagnation of trade and industry, tend to pile up great sums of unemployed capital and that not for years does this vast wealth find employment in its usual channels. It may be that this will answer the problem of Europe's financing and result in the establishment of a rate of interest which will allow us to proceed on our financial way without serious disturbance.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iv, p. 1.

MUNICIPAL REVENUES IN OHIO

BY S. GALE LOWRIE[1]
Cincinnati

THE subject of taxation is always vital in Ohio. For many years, agitation has been carried on in an effort to reform a revenue system devised for an agricultural community to meet the necessities of a state wherein more than half the population resides in cities. Like all modern municipalities, those of this state have been called upon to render year by year a greater variety of public services. The conception of the city's function has grown and duties have been undertaken which a few years ago were not included within the scope of its activity. The very grouping of large numbers of individuals in a comparatively restricted area has made it imperative that the city exercise as a municipal function what was formerly carried on by individual effort. This is one of the economies of co-operative effort rendered not only possible, but imperative, by modern city life. It is not peculiar to Ohio cities; it is the law of progress in all modern governments. This extended program, however, necessitates an increasing public expense, but with all these new demands for public service, new revenues for financing them have not been found. On the contrary funds already enjoyed have been curtailed. During the last few years especially, the situation has become more acute and the cities have been confronted on the one hand with the imperative necessity for the extension of municipal services, and upon the other with the gradual shrinkage of public revenues available for municipal purposes. For this reason, our problem of municipal finance is a serious one.

The chief sources of municipal revenue for Ohio cities are the general property tax, the cities' share of the receipts from licensing the sale of liquor and cigarettes, the returns from franchise taxes on public utilities and incidental licenses and fees imposed upon certain businesses and occupations. The most important revenue producer is the general property tax, from which some 60 per cent of the funds raised for the support of municipal government, exclusive of the maintenance of the schools, is derived. In the enjoyment of this income, however, the cities have been confronted with a tax law which has curtailed in a way to threaten serious consequences the returns which may be expected from this source. The tax limitation, or the "Smith Law" as it is popularly known, became effective January, 1911. Prior to this time, tangible property was assessed at varying percentages of its true value and the rates differed throughout the state from 1.4 per cent to 6.7 per cent, the average rate being 2.5 per cent, and in the cities 3.5 per cent. Intangible personalty, although required by the constitution to be taxed, was not generally represented upon the tax lists.

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[1] Dr. Lowrie is professor of Political Science in the University of Cincinnati and in charge of the municipal reference library of the city of Cincinnati. For a time he was director of the legislative reference bureau at Columbus. See article on "Cincinnati's Charter Campaign," vol. iii, p. 730.

The Smith law was passed pursuant to a theory that if the tax rate were low, intangible property would appear on the duplicate, and might be assessed at the same rate as realty as the constitution requires. It was believed that if property were listed at its true value, sufficient funds would be secured for the maintenance of government, and the tax burden would not rest onerously upon any class of taxpayers, consequently a rate of 1 per cent levied upon all taxable property would yield ample funds for the support of the public service. Fearing that even so low a rate upon a full assessment would produce such funds that extravagance would be encouraged, the law makers further provided that the aggregate amount of taxes to be levied in any taxing district in 1911 should not exceed the aggregate amount levied in 1910; but that in succeeding years the 1910 levy might be exceeded by 6 per cent in 1912, 9 per cent in 1913 and by 12 per cent in 1914 and in all succeeding years. Thus after 1914, the total amount of funds which might be secured from taxation should not exceed 112 per cent of the yield in 1910. Additional limitations were incorporated which fixed the maximum levy which might be provided for the city at five mills; for the school district, at five mills; for townships, at two mills; and for the county at three mills. However, the sum total of these levies together with the state levy should not exceed ten mills upon the dollar valuation.

In order to determine what adjustments might be made to keep the sum total of these levies within the limitations, a county budget commission was created, consisting of the county auditor, the county prosecutor and the mayor of the largest municipality within the county. This commission was granted power to adjust the tax levies that the total rate in any taxing district should not exceed the 1 per cent limitation.

The effect of this law was to increase greatly tax valuations, particularly with respect to reality; personalty valuations were made somewhat greater, but not to the extent anticipated by the sponsors of the measure. Although the law did not become effective until January 1, 1911, by the time the general assembly convened in 1913, serious difficulty had been experienced in securing sufficient funds to operate the municipalities, schools, and other political subdivisions of the state. The provision that the taxes levied were not to exceed those raised in 1910, plus a certain percentage, operated as a hardship in many taxing districts where the 1910 rate had been especially low because of balances from previous years or for unusual causes. . Even in other districts, the law was found to restrict unduly the conduct of public business. It proved very popular, however, particularly in the rural districts where it was felt to constitute a guarantee against excessive taxation. Consequently, it was difficult in a general assembly, in which the rural portions of the state are accorded a fuller representation than are the more populous sections, to secure even a slight modification of the law. The minor concessions made, which removed the limitation to the increase in revenue from taxation to a certain percentage based upon the 1910 revenue, and which was soon to become absolutely fixed, and the change in the personnel of the county budget commission so that in the larger cities, the city solicitor should replace the county prosecutor, were secured with great difficulty; and until ninety days had elapsed after the law was passed it was not at all certain but that a referendum would be demanded and the law submitted to the people. During the present session of the general assembly [1915], bills are pending to restrict even more completely the tax levying powers of the political subdivisions. The concession gained by the cities in securing a second member of the county budget commission in the larger cities, and by the schools in having a representative in smaller districts, was lost by a decision of the supreme court to the effect that since this work affects the entire county, it cannot be performed by a municipal officer. This would logically preclude the mayor of the largest municipality as well from serving on this commission; and it is probable the law will be so amended as to deprive the cities of this representative and to confer the power of fixing the tax rate for all cities and school districts of the county upon county officers.

The provision of the law respecting the debt service of cities is operating greatly to restrict the revenues which may be enjoyed for running expenses. The law provides that interest and sinking fund for bonds issued prior to 1910 shall be without the limitation of the law; but that for bonds issued subsequent to this time, interest and sinking fund charges shall be within the limitations and preferred claims. As the cities are paying off or refunding earlier bonds and issuing new securities, the debt service to be met within the limitations is constantly increasing and thus curtailing the amount available for other purposes. This is rapidly affecting, not only a limitation upon the debt incurring powers of cities, but is operating as a serious restriction upon their funds available for current expenses.

The law provided, however, that in case any taxing district found itself unable to secure sufficient revenue within the limitation of the ten mills, authority might be obtained by a vote of the people, to fix the maximum limitation at fifteen rather than ten mills on the dollar valuation. Nearly every municipality in the state has been forced to avail itself of this provision, and submit to the voters annually the proposal to increase the tax rate in this way. The undesirable feature is thus injected into our municipal financial system of uncertainty as to the amount of revenue available for the ensuing calendar year until the issues of the November elections are determined. Thus far the people have sanctioned the additional levy. The possibility is always present, however, that this issue may fail and the cities be forced to operate upon an exceedingly restricted basis. The largest cities of the state have found even the levy authorized by a vote, which is the largest permitted by law, to be far too small to supply their imperative needs.

During this last year, however, two events operated to increase to a slight extent the amount of revenue available for cities from taxation. The first was the enactment of a tax law, providing assessors should be appointed rather than elected. This has resulted in not only a more economical but a more efficient assessment and has returned a greater amount of property for taxation. This law, however, has been unpopular in certain quarters, and it is possible that the present general assembly will return to an elective system of choosing these officers. Whether or not this is done, it is probable that the tax lists will shrink rather than enlarge at the next assessment, as the increase was made up in many instances of personal property which may be exchanged for non-taxable securities before the next tax listing period arrives. Another action on the part of the state provided more revenue, which might be available for cities within the tax limitation by decreasing the state levy from .961 to .45 of a mill. This was done not to secure more funds for cities, but because the new tax assessing machinery had operated to increase the state revenue to a greater extent than was needed. When, however, Akron attempted to increase the tax rate for 1914 above that levied in 1913, the tax commission ordered the county auditor to disregard the new rate and levy again the rate established in 1913.

Next to the general property tax, the most important source of municipal revenue is the liquor license. A license fee of $1,000 is assessed each retail liquor dealer in the state; 30 per cent of this revenue goes to the state treasury and 20 and 50 per cent respectively to the county and municipality in which the saloon is located.[1] Returns from this source, however, have been greatly reduced by the operation of a constitutional amendment which became effective in 1912, limiting the number of saloons to one for every 500 inhabitants. The loss of this revenue falls particularly heavily upon the large municipalities, already suffering from lack of funds. No attempt has been made to replace these monies with other revenues. Cleveland lost in this way between five and six hundred thousand, and Cincinnati nearly four hundred thousand dollars. While in the other municipalities, the total decreases were not so great, yet the embarrassment because of lack of funds is just as evident.

[1] Some cities maintaining infirmaries receive 70 per cent of the revenue.

Other revenues upon which the cities of the state rely for the support of governmental activities, such as franchise and occupation taxes, and receipts from licenses and fees, have generally not been affected as have the two major sources of city revenue by state legislation. The cities have been compelled to resort to these miscellaneous revenues for a considerable portion of their receipts; and licenses and occupational taxes imposed by cities of the state are generally higher that are to be found in other municipalities throughout the country.

Not only has the income of Ohio cities been reduced by legislative action, but recent laws have placed new burdens upon the cities. State legislation resulting in expense to cities has been the establishment of municipal courts, an eight-hour day for public work; such humanitarian legislation as workmen's compensation for city employees, pensions for the blind and for widowed mothers; and the holding of special elections either by mandatory state laws on questions referred by the state legislature, or under the initiative and referendum or home rule provisions of the state constitution.

Another constitutional amendment which had a serious effect upon the finances of Ohio municipalities is the provision established in 1912 making public bonds subject to taxation. The result of this change has been to increase the interest rate which public bodies have been forced to pay without increasing to any appreciable extent the amount of intangible personalty assessment; 4 per cent Cincinnati bonds which previously sold readily at a premium now found no market, and even bonds bearing 4.5 per cent interest were placed with some difficulty. This was largely owing to the state of the money market, but the effect of the constitutional amendment has been to demand higher interest rates. This requires a larger fund annually for sinking fund and interest purposes and a corresponding decrease in the amount of funds available for current expenses. A constitutional amendment to repeal this provision submitted a year ago met defeat. Many of the cities of the state have resorted to borrowing to provide money which a sound fiscal policy would demand meeting from current revenues. Other cities have borrowed in anticipation of taxes. This is a policy which cannot long continue, but is resorted to frequently to meet present emergencies and in the hope that the future will see an alleviation of the difficulties now confronted.

There is scarcely a city in the state from which examples might not be selected to show the straits to which the cities and schools have been placed because of the lack of public revenues and the growing demand for municipal services. In Cleveland the mandatory audit of public accounts required by the charter was abandoned because of the expense. Street repair work has been greatly neglected and borrowing has been resorted to in order to conduct city government. In Cincinnati, funds imperatively needed for the support of the schools and for educational purposes have been lacking and there is scarcely a municipal department that has not had its activities seriously curtailed. Funds required for the repair of streets have not been available, and it has been necessary to issue bonds for this purpose. In Columbus, it was proposed to dispense with the work of public recreation, but objections from the citizens resulted in providing funds for this purpose at the expense of the public health service.

In Toledo, the mayor suggested that all public officers subscribe a month's salary to relieve the drain on the public exchequer. In Dayton, the position of safety director has never been filled, and the city manager has performed this service. In Akron, it was thought for a time that it would be necessary to close the public library for one month, although funds for its maintenance were subsequently discovered. There is scarcely a phase of public service which has not been crippled by lack of money for its support.

So critical did this situation become that the Ohio Municipal League at its meeting in 1914, failing to secure state legislation to relieve a condition becoming constantly more embarrassing, urged the passage of a bill authorizing the appointment by the governor of five persons to serve without compensation and report to the general assembly in 1915 on the fiscal status of the municipalities of Ohio. Pursuant to such a law, a commission was appointed which has submitted the following recommendations:

1. That the state abandon its policy of resorting to the general property tax for a portion of its revenue;
2. That a portion of the automobile fees be surrendered to municipalities;
3. That all sinking fund levies be placed outside the ten mill limitation and be separated from levies for general purposes, and in fact that the restrictions upon the borrowing capacity of municipalities be limited to a restriction upon the issuance of bonds rather than upon the ability of public bodies to meet these liabilities as they accrue. This would take the entire sinking fund and interest levies from within the tax limitation law;
4. That a constitutional amendment be proposed exempting public bonds from taxation;
5. That municipalities be authorized to borrow from their special funds in anticipation of the collection of taxes;
6. That there be no change in the law that would give cities a portion of the corporation taxes;
7. That the cities receive no greater portion of the liquor license revenues.

The state tax now amounts to .45 of a mill of which .3 mill is for the construction of state highways and is without the tax limitation law. The remainder except a slight tax for interest on the state debt is for education. The tax for highways might well be supplied from some other state source, but the educational institutions of the state need a permanent revenue, such as a mill tax affords, because the constitution precludes permanent appropriations. However, this tax is at present so small that it is necessary to supplement it by annual appropriations by the general assembly Either this tax should be increased and placed without the tax limitation law, so as to afford a permanent source of revenue for the educational institutions and at the same time release funds needed for municipalities, or it should be abandoned and another form of permanent support such as a fixed percentage of the gross revenues of the state be determined upon.

With respect to the granting of the cities a portion of the automobile fees, allowing sinking fund levies to be made without the tax limitation, authorizing cities to borrow from special funds, with proper safe-guards, and abolishing the tax on public bonds, there can be little doubt but that the committee has called attention to needed reforms. Very great differences of opinion exist respecting the propriety of giving to the cities the revenue from saloon licenses. The Ohio Municipal League recommended in 1914, that this constitute a municipal revenue. The committee finds, however, that this is a revenue subject to great fluctuations depending upon the shifting policy of the state and localities respecting the sale of liquor, and also recognizes that burdens are imposed upon the states and counties as well as upon the cities because of the excessive use of alcoholic beverages. It suggests that the division of revenue now approximates justice. Any proposal to change this policy would precipitate a bitter fight between the liquor interests and the prohibition advocates, always nearly equally divided in the general assembly. The prohibitionists fear that the granting of revenue from the saloon to local divisions would discourage the prohibition of the sale of liquor under the local option law. Consequently, it is doubtful whether the recommendation of the league would meet with favor.

The 1915 meeting of the Ohio Municipal League was again given over to a discussion of municipal revenues and, under the auspices of the league, a conference was held widely representative of cities, chambers of commerce and civic organizations. This conference went on record as favoring a constitutional amendment providing for the classification of property for taxation and the granting of home rule in matters of taxation to the counties of the state respecting any sources of revenue which the state should not deem necessary to use for its own support.

The cities of Ohio are in a grave predicament, because in the most vital question of municipal finance, their destinies are controlled by a legislature in which members from rural communities predominate. It is very difficult for these legislators to appreciate the needs and obligations of urban communities. The feeling is general that the taxpayers of the cities are not contributing to governmental expense in the same proportion as are the property holders of rural communities, and that the conduct of city government is fraught with great extravagance. Consequently a deaf ear is turned to the most earnest entreaties that the cities be allowed to tax themselves for the adequate support of their own government. Compared with the conduct of the state, county and village governments, the cities of Ohio are operated upon an economical and efficient basis. Until they can free themselves, however, from the control of a rural legislature, it is doubtful whether effective remedies may be found to relieve what is becoming a most critical situation among the cities of the state.

SHORT ARTICLES

READING'S REVISION OF ASSESSMENTS

BY HON. IRA W. STRATTON[1]

Reading, Pa.

THE revision of the assessment of Reading, Pa., real estate which was recently made by the city council acting as a board of revision, is of interest, as the same conditions which called for it in Reading call just as loudly elsewhere; and the same powers and similar or more thorough-going methods are free to be used in other cities.

The conditions are these: In the first place the appraisements of real estate, on which are based the taxes furnishing the main municipal revenues, have been grossly incorrect and unequal; no proper system has been employed in making them; and they have naturally been affected by improper influences.

In the second place, and of even greater importance, assessments have been made so as to discriminate unfairly and unwisely against up-building enterprise, and encourage obstruction of such enterprise; for the unwarranted favoring of idle or inadequately improved sites has enabled the holders to reap such unearned profits in the enhanced values that result from general progress alone, as to encourage do-nothing tactics.

It has been quite generally felt and believed that such inequitable conditions exist, and this feeling and belief has been demoralizing and has had a damaging effect on public-spirited movements; yet actual facts bearing on the subject of inequitable assessments have been practically hidden so that effective demand for correction has been very slow in developing.

As mayor I have repeatedly called the attention of the old councilmanic bodies to the unequal assessments; and in May, 1913, submitted an enlightening copy of business property assessments as taken from the books of the city assessors. This list was published in the newspapers, and helped to direct general attention to palpable undervaluations as compared with ordinary residence properties; but nothing was done to correct them in the following assessment.

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[1] Mr. Stratton is mayor of Reading, the largest third class city in Pennsylvania, and president of the League of Third Class Cities of Pennsylvania. He has taken an active part in the movement for commission government and is now actively identified with the movement to make it possible for third class cities in Pennsylvania to have city managers. He is also backing the suggestion of a state department of municipalities.

The Reading Chamber of Commerce then took up the matter of determining actual conditions. Through its committees on taxation and real estate the chamber had a systematic appraisement made, at its own expense, of nine complete city blocks, including six in the main business section, one section composed largely of manufacturing establishments, one expensive residence section, and one ordinary residence section. In this unofficial appraisement the main work was done by expert municipal appraisers; local real estate experts and the interested public generally determining merely the street-frontage values, which were used under the Somer's system, in calculating the land or site values. The net improvement values as determined by well-established appraising rules, such as are applied to all classes of real estate for general business purposes, were added to these lot values.

The detailed results of this unofficial, but systematic sample assessment, compared with the corresponding assessments taken from the assessor's books, were opened to public inspection, and the general results were published. These convincingly proved that the old assessments were unreliable and unequal, ordinary residence properties in particular being shown to be unfairly burdened in comparison with expensively located and inadequately improved properties.

The four councilmen elected at large under the provisions of the Clark bill, with myself as hold-over mayor, took office in December, 1913. Before May 1, 1914, a precept was issued requiring the hold-over assessors to make a complete reassessment; and any needed assistance in making it a systematic one was offered. The assessors complied in a way with the legal requirement, going through the usual useless formula; but they returned practically the old assessments, excepting as to added improvements, on September 1, 1914.

This brought the matter up to the council acting in its legal capacity as a board of revision and appeal. Its powers and duties in the premises were carefully considered in the light of the law itself and court decisions bearing upon it, and the difficult work was undertaken of revising the assessments submitted so as to equalize them as far as was practicable in the limited time available.

Briefly stated, the net results of this revision by the board, after hearing and decision of appeals, was an addition of about four millions to the taxable appraisements; this addition affecting high-priced properties mainly, and admittedly tending to equalize the appraisements as a whole. The entire work including the hearing and determining of appeals, was completed by December 1, 1914, as required; and there is nothing to indicate that either its legality or fairness is seriously questioned.

As to the legality of this procedure, and the general lines now authoritatively laid down in Pennsylvania for effecting a proper appraisal of real estate for municipal purposes, there seems to be already established a satisfying certainty. And moreover these lines seem to follow so closely the most advanced and correct principles, as to put this state in the front of progress in this very important movement. To support this optimistic view I will briefly state the situation as I find it.

The act of June 27, 1913 (the Clark bill), by which cities of the third class have been governed since December, 1914, follows previous acts relating to third-class cities in defining the duties of the board of revision and appeal, the council being constituted as such board.

Article XV, Section 14, provides that the board may require the city assessor, in any year, to make and return a full, just, and equal assessment of property in whole or part, as it may deem advisable; that it may revise, equalize or alter such assessments, in any and every year, by increasing or reducing the valuation either in individual cases, or by wards, or parts of wards, and shall hear and determine all appeals. That the assessment so corrected, and copied shall be and remain a lawful assessment subject only to court appeals.

In *Rees, Appellant* v. *City of Erie*, decided January 5, 1914,[1] the supreme court of the state authoritatively defined these legal powers and duties of the board of revision, in affirming Judge Benson "for the reasons stated in the findings and opinion of the learned Court of the common pleas." This opinion, thus broadly approved by the highest court of the state, is a reliable support for progressive action in municipal assessing, as will be seen from a brief review of the case.

The triennial assessment returned by the assessors of Erie, was radically revised by the board of revision and appeals; the valuation of land alone being increased in varying amounts on 10,905 taxables, decreased on 67 taxables, and left unchanged on 69 taxables, while the valuations on buildings and improvements returned by the assessors were not changed. The total valuations were raised from over $33,000,000 to over $48,000,000. The board refused to hear appeals unless reduced to writing. The court held that the board did not exceed their authority, and that their assessment constituted the lawful assessment; overruling all the plaintiffs' contentions after enlighteningly discussing them. The court said:

> Uniformity of valuation for tax purposes is a mandate of the fundamental law of the state, and we think that under the Act of 1895 the board of revision of taxes and appeals is charged with the duty of so revising, equalizing, or altering the assessments returned by the board of assessors as to accomplish that end. . . . The basis or standard of valuations to be adopted by them for the purpose of securing uniformity lies in their good judgment.
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> Nor do we think that the assessment should be set aside for the reason that the same ratio of value has not been applied to land as to buildings and improvements. . . . The latter often fail to bring anywhere near their real value of cost of construction while the former sell more readily at near their true value.

Thus it is clear that the council, in its capacity as a board of revision, is not only empowered but is "charged with the duty," of providing uniformity of taxation; even though it involves the setting aside of the work of the city assessor. The Clark bill, however, when in full operation, insures harmony of action, for it provides for the appointment of the assessor by the council; and such harmonious action should be readily agreed upon, in the public interest, even before appointments are so made. As an experienced and satisfactory assessor would naturally be preferred by the council in making an appointment to the office, such agreement is especially desirable, and in view of the clear lines now laid down, should not be difficult. In any case, however, the council as such, as well as in its capacity as a board of revision, is in duty bound to do all that is possible to secure a prompt and convincing equalization of assessments.

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[1] 243 Pennsylvania State Reports, p. 189.

And the main essential to accomplishing this is authoritatively recognized, namely, the separate valuation of land and improvements. This has not only been satisfactorily adopted by many of the most progressive cities of the country, and approved by the highest court in our own state, but has even been made mandatory, as to cities of the second class, by our state legislature, by the act of May 15, 1913. Third-class cities would certainly do well to adopt it as well as to provide systematic methods of determining both land and improvement values.

Moreover this act of May 15, 1913, and the supreme court decision referred to, clearly show that land and improvements values should not only be separately determined but also differently treated. The reasons for this are clear enough. Neither individual or municipal wisdom and enterprise can increase the amount of land which nature provides and positively limits; but they can control the quantity and the character of buildings and other improvements. Site values inevitably come and constantly increase with population and general progress, while improvement values, which represent human enterprise and labor, inevitably depreciate with age. Even a good second-hand building is apt to sell something like a second-hand machine, while an unsuitable building, however costly, may be a mere encumbrance to a good site. These facts must be fairly recognized in order to fully secure a wise and equitable assessment of taxes. The provision for gradual exemption of fifty per cent of building and improvement values which the state legislature included in this act of May 15, 1913, was a wise one which ought to be extended to all municipalities. The immediate essential to real progress however is that separate valuations of land and improvements be systematically made, for otherwise a fair equalization of assessments cannot be attained.

With the way thus opening to a really equitable distribution of the burdens of taxation, we can reasonably hope to secure before long that public-spirited support of municipal improvement movements which is necessary to proper progress.

COMMENT ON THE DAYTON CHARTER

BY LENT D. UPSON[1]
Dayton, O.

DAYTON is the first large city to attempt municipal betterment through city manager government, and this fact together with the unusual circumstances attending its adoption, has directed a significant interest to the experiment. Many communities impressed by this example of local government have endeavored to put its larger principles into operation. Some of these have copied intact the Dayton charter, while others have accepted the administrative provisions with slight change.

Doubtless a charter most carefully prepared would, under operation, develop points for improvement. This could not be less true of the Dayton document, which in spite of painstaking thought on certain sections, was written in a limited time by business men. The wide use of the Dayton document as a model suggests the indicating of certain alterations, the need of which has developed through a year's experience. The notations are illustrative of the necessity of care and experience in charter drafting, and are not meant as an exhaustive recital of charter defects.

It so happens that all of the larger cities and most of the smaller ones with city manager government have placed the legislative powers in a small board, elected at large without regard to political party. Irrespective of the improvement in administration generally attending the adoption of the city manager plan, it has not been definitely proven that a small council chosen in the manner indicated contributes materially to this result.

Indeed, the amount of newspaper criticism and street talk based upon misinformation and prejudice prompts the belief that there is a failure to filter the facts of government down to an interested public—an error which some elements suggest might be corrected by bringing the legislative body closer to the people. It is advanced that a method by which the several political and social elements in the community might be represented would stimulate a more friendly attitude among discordant groups, and would require such representatives to place themselves definitely on record on propositions which are criticised solely for political expediency. In other words, responsibility would minimize fault-finding. This problem of representation can have only an empirical solution, and Dayton having discarded the ward system and its evils, awaits with interest the results of a trial of proportional representation.

[1] Director, Dayton Bureau of Municipal Research.

That the provision in the Dayton charter permitting the recall of the city manager is an error, has been generally conceded. The city manager is solely an administrative officer engaged to carry out the legislative policies of the commission. If he fails in these administrative duties, the commission has made the mistake of appointing an incompetent person; if measures are unpopular, it is the fault of the commission which ordered them put into effect. Granted that in the public mind the city manager will always be the most important person in the city government; that administrations will succeed or fail upon the manager's achievements—yet in the last analysis it is the employers who should be held responsible.

The charter-framers of Dayton were not insensible to these principles, but believed that to have so radical a departure in city government approved, it would be necessary to offer an additional safeguard in the possibility of recalling the city manager. As the public has come largely to realize the purely administrative duties of the city manager, it seems feasible to eliminate this objectionable feature of the charter.

The charter provides that the first meeting of the city commission shall be "on the first Monday of January following the regular municipal election." Under such circumstances it might so happen that the city would be without government, or at least its officers without authority to expend funds from January 1 until the first Monday in the month. This section should be remedied, calling for a meeting of the commission, and the passing of an appropriation ordinance on the first business day of the year.

It has been provided that the city attorney shall be appointed by the city manager, while his assistants are chosen subject to civil service regulations. Question has been made as to the policy of subordinating this office to chief executive. Numerous questions may be proposed, relating particularly to the financial administration of the city, in which it might be advisable that the opinion of the city attorney be unbiased by his relationship with the officer directly responsible for such financial considerations. Not infrequently the desire of an administration to show immediate results proves inimical to the best interests of the tax payers, although the latter are theoretically protected by law. For example, by the refunding of bonds to the advantage of the operating fund; by bond issues for purposes approaching current operation, etc. In such instances the legal adviser of the city should be in the position to advance an independent opinion. It has been suggested that the city attorney, or the chief financial officer, preferably the former, be appointed directly by the commission, but this diversion from centralized authority has never been tried.

The vital feature of the prescribed accounting procedure of Dayton is in the words "accounting procedure shall be devised and maintained for the city, adequate to record in detail all transactions affecting the acquisition, custodianship and disposition of values . . . . " With this sanction, the director of finance has opened a complete set of books including a general ledger, and is prepared to furnish an accurate balance sheet of all city funds. In fact, Dayton has installed a financial system comparing favorably with that employed in large private business, and which is equalled by few cities in the country. The charter further requires that distinct summaries and schedules shall be presented for each public utility owned and operated. This should be amended to include public industries, such as garbage disposal plants, public markets, etc.

Under the present requirement the city manager signs both the order for goods or services and the voucher by which the payment for such is authorized. It is doubtful if the manager should be compelled to sign either of these documents, as he has no personal knowledge of, and little time to investigate, the merits of the thousands of business transactions occurring.

To centralize the city government the charter provides that the board of sinking fund trustees shall consist of the city commission, the city manager, and the director of finance. A commission with its many varied duties has little time or interest in technical sinking fund procedure. Even in Dayton such a fundamental procedure as the change from the serial to sinking fund plan of debt retirement secured scant consideration. Further, intrusting the custodianship of sinking fund money with the same body that creates indebtedness may not be assumed always to operate to the interest of the tax payers. Occasions might be when the legislative body would issue bonds which, while permitting a favorable showing by the administration, might be illegal as well as impolitic. Examples are bonds for equipment, regular engineering, and refunding purposes. Under the present circumstances if such indebtedness were refused by bond buyers the legislative body acting as sinking fund trustees might purchase the questionable issue. On the other hand, an independent board of sinking fund trustees would probably be inclined to act only for the broader concern of the public. Reduction in salaried positions, though not the centralization of administration, could be secured equally well by creating a sinking fund commission to serve without pay, and by providing that the city treasurer or accountant should act as secretary.

Purchasing provisions of the charter do not provide that the purchasing agent shall buy other than supplies and materials, although the local agent has extended his activities to include certain contractual services known in budgetary parlance as "contractual services" or "services other than personal." Charter amendment should be made to demarcate the sphere of the agent; or at least to designate minimum activities, leaving their extension to the option of the city manager. Probably centralized purchasing would be profitable for telephone service; repairs by contract or open market order, whether to equipment, building or structures; insurance, both fire and liability; public utility services except transportation charges; and other contractual services such as legal advertising, boarding of live stock, rent of lands and buildings, storage of equipment, horseshoeing, etc.

Definite charter provision should be made for the creation of a stores fund with which goods may be purchased, stored and sold to departments without profit; for the reimbursement of this fund by warrants drawn against the proper appropriation codes when stores are delivered; and as to the method of adjusting the account at the close of the fiscal year. Authorization should also be made for the sale of services and supplies between departments where the transfer of charges is one of account and no money passes through the city treasury.

It would also be well to specify more clearly the circumstances surrounding emergency orders, requiring that the facts of the emergency shall be certified to the purchasing agent within twenty-four hours after the purchase is made, and that a confirming order shall be immediately sent to the vendor. In this connection the creation of departmental petty cash funds should be definitely allowed, carefully limiting their use so as to minimize abuse.

Further provision should be made that when bids are opened, and before contracts are let, the figures should be public to competitors and to citizens sufficiently interested to inquire at the purchasing agent's office. To this end bids should be tabulated upon standard sheets and become permanent records. Objection has been made that the publicity of bids in contrast to the practice of private firms is not conducive to lowest prices. On the other hand, secrecy of bids places the purchasing agent liable to the temptation of deals with corrupt vendors, and robs the public and competitors of easy means of detection. This situation, as in Dayton, may be remedied by administrative order, but a model charter should leave no vagueness of this character.

If city advertising is done exclusively in a daily newspaper of general circulation which bids the lowest price per unit for such services, there is a remarkable saving in charges of this character. However, the Dayton charter does not permit a municipal journal to be substituted in case a newspaper contract has been entered into, although frequently it would be advantageous to do so. With certain extensive ordinances such as the city budget, building code, traffic rules, etc., newspaper publication is not only expensive, but it is not particularly effective. In such instances it would be desirable to publish in pamphlet form as an issue of a journal which would be less expensive, furnish a means of permanence, and allow for distribution among persons affected or interested.

The absurdity of certain of the Dayton civil service provisions will be so apparent to even the casual student of government that these sections merit only brief mention and discussion:

(a) The unclassified service includes the heads of divisions, as well as of departments, thereby removing the promotion incentive for employees, and offering a stimulus to the creation and extension of divisions by an unscrupulous administration interested in extending the spoils system.

(b) The chief examiner is empowered to fill vacant positions, after consultation with the city manager, from the *entire* eligible list. Certainly such a provision lays the merit system wide open to abuse, and might even nullify it were the appointing officers so inclined. The city manager of Dayton is appointing from the top of the eligible list, but a change in the administration policies would permit the filling of vacancies with ward politicians of minimum ability.

(c) Contrary to approved practices, it is provided that discharged employees are entitled to a public hearing before the civil service board. Such a program will find little defense among persons familiar with civil service practice. A recent experience of Dayton with a public hearing of this kind has proven this scheme to be conducive to insubordination, makes the departmental head reluctant to discharge incompetents, and furnishes an opportunity for the creating of political capital by the opposition.

There are a number of commendable features in the civil service chapter, notably those relating to the standardization of salaries, requiring a probationary period of appointment, certification of all pay rolls, and the prevention of political activity on the part of employees. These should be retained, but certainly the other provisions cited are in urgent need of amendment.

The principal weaknesses of the special assessment sections relate to the levying of assessments previous to the making of improvements. It is impractical for the city engineer to estimate exactly the cost of improvements, in consequence of which the figures are usually excessive, necessitating rebates at the conclusion of the construction. However, when this amount is small, and no demand is made by the tax payer, the surplus is turned into a fund to meet small deficiencies. The devising of some plan which will eliminate these difficulties without involving the objections arising from fixing the assessments after the improvement is made would be an interesting study.

The extensive use which municipalities are now making of special assessments for purposes other than public improvements, should prompt some provisions for the treatment of these funds aside from the regular assessment procedure. Where assessments are used for special street lighting, vault cleaning, sidewalk cleaning, weed cutting, street flushing, street sprinkling, etc., regular budgetary appropriations should be made for these services, with the stipulation that the assessment income should be turned into the general fund as a regular revenue; and that in those cases in which such assessment is placed on the tax duplicate it should be returned when collected to the general fund.

Some exception has been taken to the franchise regulation which prohibits the regranting of a franchise prior to one year of its expiration, a section included to prevent franchise jobbing by a controlled legislative body. It has not been infrequent in municipal history for a council to annul a franchise and in its place grant a new one for a long period. On the other hand it is frequently to local advantage to secure improvements from public utilities, or the union of separate companies, in return for a new franchise granted before the expiration of the older ones. Probably with the other safeguards which have been thrown around the granting of franchises this section might be eliminated.

No sections of the Dayton charter have been more widely copied than those relating to appropriations, doubtless because this city has been one of the few to detail appropriation procedure. However, after the experience derived from the preparation of two budgets under these sections, and with a knowledge of the more recent developments in budget making, certain minor changes urgently recommend themselves:

(a) The fiscal year should begin, not necessarily with the calendar year but at a time when the principal payments of accrued city revenues are anticipated.

(b) The classification of expense estimates should be *uniform* for the main functional divisions of each department, rather than "as nearly uniform as possible."

(c) The clause requiring that the first publication of the budget be made *after* the public hearings should be changed to read *before*. This was an unintentional error. A provision requiring that the manager's estimate of expense be published parallel with the appropriations of the commission has been found unnecessary.

(d) Recently considerable change in budget procedure has been suggested by the publication of a budget program for the city of New York for 1915, as devised by the New York bureau of municipal research. The details are too long to be discussed here but are worthy of consideration by any charter drafting body.

In providing for the salaries and compensation of employees, the charter states that the city manager shall fix the number and salaries of officers and employees excepting those in the division of fire and police, and the heads of departments. Such a section is theoretically unsound as delegating to an appointive officer powers which should be retained by the legislative body which is responsible to the people. This was recognized by the city manager of Dayton who voluntarily relinquished this charter right, and the salaries and period of service of each employee are made an integral part of the appropriation ordinance.

The charter by requiring that the money shall be in the treasury before obligations are entered into automatically limits the period of contract to one year. In the main, this has proven beneficial but absolutely prevents long-term contracts for public lighting, garbage disposal, etc. Contracts of this character should be exempt from this provision.

These are some of the important changes found desirable in the Dayton charter after one year of operation. Doubtless there are others which further experience will develop. This document was never presented as the last word in charter-making, but claims to be only a step in advance over those in common use. Cities contemplating the adoption of the Dayton model of government should profit by the weaknesses which have arisen, remembering that the most adequate charter, if it contains administrative procedure, will require periodic amendment in order to take advantage of improvements developed through the experience of their own and other cities.

WHAT GLASGOW DOES FOR ITS POOR

BY HARVEY N. SHEPARD[1]
Boston

IT IS seldom now we take up a book, or even a pamphlet, dealing with the modern city, that we do not find in it some reference to the city of Glasgow, and its wonderful achievements. We read in terms of praise of its police and fire service, the excellence and cheapness of its water supply, the cleanliness of its streets, its tramways, its gas and electric works, and its parks, playgrounds, libraries, art galleries, museums and concerts. All these things are interesting, and are worth serious investigation; but they are to be seen in other cities, both in Great Britain and upon the continent, and to some extent in our own country. In some other directions, however, Glasgow not only was the pioneer, but also in one or two of them it remains to-day almost alone. They are its lodging houses, its family home, and its workmen's dwellings. The last have been provided also in several other cities, notably in London, Liverpool, and Manchester, and in Germany; and the first have been provided also in a few other cities; but, so far as I know, the second remains unique. It was these then which I wished to see, when I had the good fortune to be a few days in Glasgow, in the early part of August of this year.

Armed with a letter of introduction to the lord provost, I made my way, one morning, to the magnificent municipal building in St. George's square. The courtesy and attention which were given to me were most gratifying; and especially when we recall that this was at the beginning of the great war, and the authorities were busy in helping to muster the forces of the kingdom to defend Belgium against a treacherous invasion.

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[1] Mr. Shepard, who is now a member of the State Civil Service Commission of Massachusetts, was formerly president of the Boston Common Council when that was the governing body of the city and has served upon many commissions relative to municipal matters. He has delivered many addresses upon municipal matters in the west and south and has given lectures in the School of Law of Boston University upon city government.

Nevertheless, no sooner had I stated my errand than messages were despatched to put me into communication with the men, who best could give me the information which I sought. Meanwhile I was invited to luncheon with the city officials in the municipal building; and there I met the manager of the city improvements department, William C. Menzies. He placed himself at once at my disposal; and, when luncheon was over, we went in his car to the municipal lodging houses.

As in most large cities, there were in Glasgow, some forty years ago, a great many common lodging houses, conducted by private enterprise, where men and women were crowded together in dark and stuffy rooms, without any of the conveniences for health or decency. It was well known, both there and elsewhere, that these places were hotbeds of misery, disease, and vice. But there, and up to that time nowhere else, the municipal authorities decided to apply a remedy. In other cities, while the evil was just as bad and as well known, it was looked upon as a necessary, though unfortunate evil, and beyond remedy; at least by the municipality. But Glasgow, with creditable courage, gave way to no such doctrine of despair and determined to act.

With rare insight, it recognized that to destroy such unsavory abodes, without providing others, better and healthier, for those unfortunate people, who from choice or necessity frequented them, would be not to remedy but to intensify the evil. It therefore was not content with condemning them, but began at the same time to construct and equip municipal lodging houses, of which there are now, 1914, seven, six for men and one for women. They are stone buildings, three to five stories in height, and of the most substantial character.

Every lodger has his own separate room, with a bed and chair. The bed has a wire spring, an hair or fibre mattress, coarse sheets, a blanket, a coverlet, a pillow, and a pillow case. All these are aired, cleaned, and washed, after the lodger has gone in the morning; or, if he remains more than one night, whenever he does go; and always at least once a week. The whole number of these little bedrooms, in the seven lodging houses, is 2,235.

In every house there is a large recreation room, where the lodgers may chat, play games, or read; and where in the winter concerts and other entertainments are given. There also is a large dining hall; and abundant accommodation, with plenty of cooking utensils, in an adjoining kitchen. A shop for the sale of provisions and groceries is provided in each house; and in two of them cooked meals are supplied. Each lodger also can have the use of a small locker, with a key. And in addition there are facilities for washing his clothes, and hot air drying rooms.

Another altogether unique enterprise, though in principle it is only a development of the lodging house, is the family home. Difficult as it is for a workman to find for himself clean and comfortable lodging within his means, the difficulty is far more serious, when he is a widower with several young children. Usually he cannot hire an housekeeper or a nurse, even at meagre remuneration; and therefore, when he goes to work, his children must be locked in the dwelling or left in the streets; and their food comes by chance or through the good offices of some kind neighbor.

To meet the needs of this class the family home was opened in 1896. It contains 160 separate bedrooms, a dining hall, a kitchen with gas fires and steam boilers, a nursery, playrooms, baths and lavatories. All the rooms are warmed by hot water and are lighted by electricity. Meals are provided for the children, those of school age are sent to school, the others are looked after by nurses, and the cleanliness of all is seen to carefully. If a child develops symptoms of disease, a physician is called at once; and if it appears to be infectious the child is removed to an hospital. The home has proved a boon to many a perplexed man; and many children who have grown up within its walls, retain a kindly recollection of its associations.

As in other European cities, there goes with the widening of existing streets and the construction of new streets a larger taking of land than is required merely for the area of the streets. The authorities take a sufficient area to make possible a well-considered plan for the consistent development of the whole. For example, in an old portion of Glasgow, there was a densely inhabited area of about ninety acres, with narrow, circuitous, and inconvenient lanes and passages; a menace to its moral and physical welfare. This area was taken by the city, and all the buildings were torn down. After the construction of the new streets, the city proceeds to erect buildings. Where there are valuable street frontages, shops, warehouses, and other business premises, are provided. In some cases only the ground floor is given over to business, with workmen's tenements on the upper floors. Upon all the less valuable sites workmen's dwelling houses only are built. Upon this and other like areas there are now 2,200 apartments suitable for and let to the poorest classes; and in addition the city is about to erect 80 more three-story buildings, having 72 dwellings of one and two apartments. Of these 2,200 apartments 592 are of one room, 1,334 of two, 237 of three, and 16 of more than three.

Each of the lodging houses is under the care of a superintendent and one to three wardens, with a staff of women, who come daily to do the cleaning and making up of the beds. The family home is managed by a superintendent and matron, with a staff of servants and nurses. The soiled linen from all these houses is sent to the city's steam laundry, which I found equipped with the most modern machinery. A caretaker lives in each of the workmen's buildings, and is thus brought into close touch with the tenants, and enabled to make daily inspection of the property. All are under the control of the manager, Mr. Menzies, who is appointed by the council's city improvements committee.

It is worth while to notice the different method of administration of such matters in Great Britain and in the United States. So marked has been our distrust of our cities, and especially of their councilmen, that, if such an enterprise were begun here, it is certain it would be administered by a commission, probably appointed by the state, or, if not, then by the mayor. Under no circumstances would it be left to a committee of the council. The British have far more confidence in their elected representatives than we have. The exaltation of the executive, and the powerlessness of the legislative branch of city government, are as incomprehensible to them as is our interference in municipal matters by the state.

Another matter equally worthy of notice is the term of office. Mr. Menzies need not fear that he will be displaced, because the membership of the council, which chooses him, changes every year. He is as secure in his position as is a judge upon the bench. The only requisites are capacity and faithfulness. And in this connection it must be remembered there are no civil service laws, as with us, applicable to the cities of the United Kingdom. The cities have a right to change their officials as they please. They are bound by no artificial bonds. They are bound, however, much more strongly by a high sense of honor, developed, as it only can ever be developed, by trust. The people believe their councilmen will do their duty, and they do it.

In conclusion we want to know what these things cost the people who use them, and how much of a burden they are to the city. In the lodging houses a man pays eight to twelve cents a night; and this sum includes his clean and comfortable bed, the use of the recreation and dining halls and lavatories, the kitchen range and cooking utensils, and facilities for washing his clothes. If he takes a locker he deposits twelve cents, which are given back to him when he returns his key. The food, or cooked meals, as he may prefer, are supplied to him at equally moderate prices. In the family home the rent charge for a bedroom, including heating, lighting, and cleaning, with the use of dining and recreation rooms, and all the other privileges of the home, is $1.32 a week. Regular meals are cooked and supplied to him at the lowest possible charge. For his children's meals he pays forty-four cents a week a child. If the number of his children is not more than three he pays nothing additional for their bed; and if he has more than three he pays also sixteen cents a week for each additional child. In the workmen's dwellings an apartment of one room rents at $22.50 to $27.50 a year; an apartment of one room with a small bedroom, at $27.50 to $30 a year; and an apartment of two rooms at $35 to $42.50 a year.

At these prices the revenue from the lodging houses was, until the year 1908, sufficient to pay all expenditures, including interest and depreciation. That was a year of industrial depression, and the cost for the first time was in excess of the revenue. The following years have shown a continual gain, and were it not for the unfortunate war, which so severely burdens every enterprise, the lodging houses would again prove to be remunerative. The working expenses of the family home for the year 1910 exceeded its revenue by $250; and in this case include a charge for interest and sinking fund. Although a small loss is thus shown, the gain in the health and morals of the children, and the relief to the anxiety of their fathers, are of far more account. The workmen's dwellings show a surplus balance of revenue. The expenses in all cases include charges for water, the lighting of common stairs and halls, and rates and taxes upon the properties, exactly as though they were in private ownership.

In 1876 the city council passed an order that in one of the areas, belonging to the municipality, there should be no sale of intoxicating liquors, and made this binding upon the land, so that not a single public house has been, or can be, established upon it. In 1890 the city went a step further in this direction of social reform, and made the order applicable to all its lands, so that now there is not a single public house in the very numerous properties under the control of this department.

EMERGENCY RELIEF IN PHILADELPHIA

BY W. ARTHUR WARNER[1]
Philadelphia

THE city of Philadelphia appropriated $50,000 for the relief of the unemployed and thereby furnished a causus belli that has thrown the local social forces into serious conflict.

In October a meeting was held in city hall under the auspices of the finance committee of councils. Riley M. Little, secretary of the Society for Organizing Charity, in behalf of his own and other organized charitable societies, made a statement showing that there were about 70,000 men out of employment in the city, and urging on the city authorities to undertake public improvements at once and thus relieve the suffering and hardship with legitimate work for the unemployed. This report did not meet with the favor of the members of the finance committee. They did not accept the suggestion that public works be started at this time to give employment, and they did not seem convinced that there were only 70,000 unemployed.

The committee subsequently found a strong ally in a remarkable, popular and new social movement in Philadelphia. The suffering in the war zone in Europe touched the hearts of our privileged classes, and they organized an impulse to help into a committee called the Emergency Aid Committee. This committee did splendid service, especially for the Belgian relief. Quite naturally the suffering at home this winter started a similar effort for the poor in Philadelphia. The committee at once formed a home division of emergency relief. Women of leisure are serving actively in the field, a large amount of sewing is given to women, and about $8,000 a week is being spent for the relief of the poor. A number of clergymen, bankers, editors, and men of affairs were added to the committee to aid in raising the necessary funds. Their original plan was to work in co-operation with, and largely through the machinery of the various organized charitable agencies. This committee concurred in the opinion of the finance committee of councils, that "careful investigation revealed the existence of an appalling amount of distress among the citizens of Philadelphia," and they also "believed that it was beyond the present capacity of existing charitable and social agencies to relieve it." They then asked councils to make an appropriation of $50,000 to be distributed through them for the relief of the unemployed. They totally ignored the request of the mayor and the organized charitable societies that the city give not charity but employment by increasing the public works. Councils passed the bill appropriating the $50,000, and the mayor signed it, giving his reasons in a statement issued to the public. Among other things he said:

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[1] Secretary of the Home Missionary Society of Philadelphia.

> I admit and deplore the existence of a large amount of unemployment, probably not as great as in 1893–94 or in 1907–08, but still very considerable. I yield to no one in the city in anxiety to be of service at this time; but I am firmly convinced that this appropriation is unsound in principle, impossible of satisfactory administration in practice and calculated to defeat its own ends. The money of the city is money raised by taxation, and should be devoted to purely public purposes, and not distributed in charitable relief through any private agency, however worthy.
>
> In times of distress citizens who are blessed with more of this world's goods than is absolutely necessary for their well-being should increase their charitable contributions, even to the point of denying themselves luxuries and comforts which they would otherwise be justified in enjoying. Municipalities should increase their public works, so as to give employment to the greatest possible number of those who would ordinarily be employed in private enterprises.
>
> Public funds should not be appropriated, however, to charitable relief. Such appropriations largely fail to reach the really worthy, while they attract and exite the cupidity of the unworthy, both in the city and out of the city. This is not theory. It is a fact which has repeatedly been demonstrated to such an extent that the appropriation of public funds for charitable relief has been almost unknown for 20 years, and is not being attempted by any other city at this time. Its effect in this city will be to multiply the applications for charitable relief, to lessen the sources of private charity, and to impose an intolerable burden upon any churches, societies, committees or individuals who may undertake to administer the relief.
>
> In view of these facts, it may be asked why I approve the appropriation, and I

> think it only fair that I should frankly state my reasons. I approve it because it has not been declared illegal by the city solicitor. I also approve it because many citizens and many members of the Emergency Aid Committee do not appreciate the facts stated and they honestly believe that they are not facts.
>
> They will not be accepted as facts upon my say so, or that of any other individual. I believe that nothing but actual demonstration will convince the community of their truth, and that $50,000 is not too great a price to pay for such a demonstration.
>
> I, therefore, approve the appropriation, in order that the demonstration may be had, firmly believing that this demonstration will convince every intelligent person of the unwisdom of the appropriation, and end once and for all the agitation for any similar requests in this or any other city.

Four of the largest charitable organizations stated at once that they thought it unwise for them to partake in the administration of public monies. The danger of becoming involved in political questions was an important factor in their decision. In answer to many inquiries they issued a statement to the public in which among others these reasons were given for their position in the matter:

> In the light of past experience, here and in other cities, we are compelled to regard such legislation as unwise and productive of evil results to the poor and to the community.
>
> The announcement of such relief measures, accompanied, as in this case, by widespread publicity and advertisement, attracts from within the city, and from neighboring towns and states, great numbers of applicants, many of them from the classes that prey upon the community. No other large cities, as far as we can learn, have made special relief appropriations.
>
> The history of public outdoor relief, with the impossibility of investigation and of suiting the remedy to the needs of each individual case, points to a consequent increase of dependency. It tends to diminish among the poor self-effort and self-respect, and weakens their whole moral fibre. The self-respecting among the unemployed want work, not charity.
>
> Public relief funds discourage private generosity and benevolence.
>
> We think that the emergency aid, the churches, charitable organizations, employers and individuals can, by co-operation and the support of a generous public, meet the present situation without city funds and can quietly and efficiently administer to the individual needs of each case as necessity requires. Of the first 700 applicants to the emergency aid 600 already were under the care of existing charities. We believe that the experience gained in administering the $50,000 fund will show it to be unwise for Councils to make further appropriations for relief.
>
> Large appropriations should be made for public improvements, as other cities are doing, thereby giving real work to the unemployed at real wages.

Within three weeks of the announcement of the passage of the appropriation one organized society reported that new applications for relief jumped 66 per cent "among them many demanding as their right a share of the city funds."

The Emergency Aid Committtee discontinued their previous working arrangement with and through these organized societies. An evident attempt of some to use this difference of opinion to increase the widespread criticism of the methods of organized charity failed, and wiser counsels restored much of the consideration and courtesy that at first existed between these groups intent upon a common social service.

During the week of February 7–14 the committee and the organized societies have received a splendid support from the generosity of the citizens of Philadelphia proving a large public confidence in both.

WAR AND HOUSING

BY JOHN IHLDER
New York City

AT THE present moment we who get our information about the European war from the newspapers are chiefly concerned with the outcome of individual battles; but those who are directing affairs, who are looking about for the means that will enable them to continue a long-drawn and desperate struggle, are probably more concerned about things at which the newspapers as yet do not hint. As the weeks go on it becomes more and more apparent that final victory will rest with those who have the greatest staying power, those who have the greatest reserves upon which to draw.

This, of course, is no news. England's wealth, its uninterrupted commerce, Russia's uncounted millions of peasants are factors that have already been dwelt upon; but only here and there have appeared in the special correspondence hints at what may in the end prove the deciding factor, the quality of the individual men in the contending armies. How important this factor is we may realize by remembering England's experience in the Boer War when it had difficulty in finding among the people of its swarming industrial cities recruits who measured up to standards which had been lowered to meet the emergency. Now England must send out vastly greater armies than she did in 1900. What will be the quality of those armies? Mere numbers do not tell. The ability of the army at present in the field offers us no test, for that army is composed of her professional soldiers, men who were accepted before the drain had begun, reinforced by the first and the best of the volunteers. When the long strain begins it will be borne, or it will not be borne, by those who are now drilling in the parks at home. What account will they give of themselves?

Some months ago, before the war began, the *Atlantic Monthly* published an article by Vernon L. Kellogg on "Eugenics and Militarism." With Mr. Kellogg's argument against militarism we are not now concerned, we wish simply to quote some of his figures.

> For example, in the decade 1893–1902, out of a total of 679,703 men offering themselves for enlistment in England, 34.6 per cent were rejected as unfit for service, 9 per cent were rejected after three months' provisional acceptance, and 2.1 per cent were discharged as

invalids within two years, making thus a total of 40 per cent of all those applying that were turned back into the civil population as not physically fit men. In 1911, of the 64,538 men who offered themselves for enlistment in England, Scotland, and Wales, 28,900, or 44.78 per cent, were rejected for physical unfitness by the examining board. More than 63 per cent of all the applications for enlistment from the city of Edinburgh were rejected, and more than 57 per cent of those applying in Leeds. In London, 36 per cent were rejected.

And these figures by no means reveal the closeness of this selection, for the requirements of height and chest measurements are so well known that men obviously under size or obviously infirm do not offer themselves, or if they do are at once rejected by the recruiting sergeants, so that they never reach the regular examining boards. Evidence presented to the inter-departmental committee on physical deterioration in the United Kingdom indicates that out of every one hundred men who offer to enlist in the British army only forty are accepted, sixty being returned to the civil population as physically unfit. And although it may be objected that the flower of the British working classes do not offer themselves for enlistment, yet it is admittedly true that the British army is not composed exclusively, or, indeed, by any means largely, of British riffraff. While many, perhaps a majority, of the applicants for enlistment are men out of work, a condition of temporary unemployment in Great Britain is by no means a certain indication of incompetency. No observer of present-day industrial conditions in England would claim this for a moment.

At any rate, this possible criticism of the shunning of the army by the better classes of young men can have no bearing in the case of the French and German conditions, where compulsory service obtains. In these countries all the young men arriving at military age each year are liable to service, a certain proportion of them being chosen by lot to join the colors. The annual contingents, or "classes," are examined, man by man, by carefully chosen boards, to determine the physical fitness or unfitness for military service of all this youth of France and Germany.

As a result of these personal examinations, France has, for nearly one hundred years now, regularly rejected as physically unfit from 30 to 40 per cent of those examined each year. Prussia has rejected, for many years, from 35 to 50 per cent. (This is, of course, I should mention in passing, no basis of comparison between the male youth of France and that of Prussia, for any slight difference in the requirements as to height or bodily condition, or in the rigor of applying the recruiting regulations, would account for the differences in proportion of rejected.)

Such figures as these have caused the military leaders of the European nations much thought. Organization, training, discipline may be essential. The successful working out of problems of strategy may win a campaign; but back of them all lies the quality of the private in the ranks. If he is below par all else is useless.

Germany, perhaps, realized this first. The boy is father to the man. He must be taken care of that he may become suitable material for an efficient army. So Germany began to improve the conditions under which its children are born and reared. It attacked the housing problem.

England had already been awakened to the menace of its bad housing, but it was the Boer war that shocked it wide-awake. So England, too, has been making tremendous efforts to improve the homes of the mass of its people. Those who have recently visited England after an absence of many years claim to notice a decided improvement. England and

Germany, however, still have their slums which bring forth disease and degeneracy. In this time of stress their power may well be limited by the extent of these, their paper strength turned into actual weakness. For the products of the slum are not good enough to be food for powder, they would but hamper their own army; they are not good enough to do the nation's work while better men are fighting for them. Yet they must be fed and clothed and sheltered.

We in America have no immediate cause to fear such a dramatic demand upon our staying power as that which the great nations of Europe are trying to meet. But in less spectacular ways we too are engaged in a competition the result of which depends upon the quality of the individual citizen. We too have permitted the creation of slums which bring forth disease and degeneracy. They are in our small cities and towns as well as in the great centers of industry. We have been granted peace and opportunity to rid ourselves of these handicaps. Shall we too wait until war or need for a conscript army makes us take decisive action?

A COMMUNITY SECRETARY

BY GRAHAM TAYLOR[1]

Chicago

WHAT you are doing here in Neillsville to-day in forming your community association and inaugurating the civic secretary of your city looks almost like rediscovering America.

Our New England forefathers took possession of the new soil with one of the oldest things they could have brought from the old world—the town. From the English "shire," the Teutonic "tun," the Norwegian "thing," the still older primitive "village community," the "Aryan household," and the "ancient city," they brought their township and planted it here in the new world as the people's most primitive possession, their most universal heritage.

The New England town meeting was the beginning of a new democracy, as the old world's forms of it had been the survival of the people's liberty. From Plymouth Rock onward their town meeting was the political meeting of the church members, as the church was the religious organization of the citizens. Thus at the center of every town the Pilgrim Fathers planted their "center church." Connecticut's shield bears as the sign of the new conquest a rod with three vines intertwined about it. They were the first three towns clinging to the churches, or the first three churches clinging to the town. Whichever it was, they meant and made the town to be like the "ancient city," not chiefly a place, not merely a population, not a collection of houses and streets, but a federation of families. The discoverers centered the soil and themselves at the town, the church, the school, all at one center.

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[1] Being the address of Graham Taylor, president of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, on the occasion of the inauguration of Walter P. Schatz as Civic Secretary of Neillsville, Wis. See article on "Civic Secretaryship as Public Service," vol. iii, p. 756.

America needs rediscovery. For, our local communities gradually lost their center. As religious faiths varied, the one church could no longer be the center for the whole community with its many sects. As political parties sprang up, the town meeting became divisibly partisan and could no longer be the center for the co-operation of the whole community. As population became cosmopolitan, the people were divided by race, language, custom and class. Only a free public school was left as the one bit of common mother-earth which we all own, to which we all have equal claim, where we all have right to be on equal terms.

Here at the common school we are beginning over again to discover local centers for American life. Here on common ground you are getting together as our freemen forbears used to do on Boston Common, and on the village greens across the seas. Your new "community association" is the old town meeting revived and readapted in non-partisan form to give free expression to public opinion and the co-operative action of the community as a whole.

At one center you are pooling your all inclusive interests—economic, recreational, educational. The importance of making the prosperity of your city and the adjoining country the concern of all, instead of the special interest of any few, is well emphasized by providing for commercial, industrial and agricultural sections in your organization. Property interests have divided us too long, instead of constituting an interest common to us all. Progress is impossible where sought by a few at the expense of the many.

It is a sign of the new times that business men are catching sight of the larger aspects of their trades and crafts. They are realizing that if the community fails their business cannot succeed. And the town is realizing that it cannot succeed if its business fails. In their trade organizations and trade unions, in their commercial associations and federations of labor, business men, both capitalists and laborers, employers and employes, are serving their town to serve themselves, and in serving themselves seek to serve their town. This new civic patriotism in commerce and industry begets the new hope of industrial peace and community prosperity. If we leave the commercial development of the town to the few, and think it to be none of our business, they cannot succeed, as Miss Margaret Woodrow Wilson well reminds you, "without public opinion, without community spirit back of them. The most effective way of promoting any special community interest is for the community as a whole to assume the responsibility of promoting that interest."

By including an agricultural section and closely allying it with sections devoted to commercial, industrial and municipal interests, your community association is bridging the chasm between town and country, the great city and "down state." Your practical demonstration that their interests are one, reciprocal and indivisible, may possibly hasten the end of that foolish cleavage between city and country representatives in our state legislatures which deadlocks the movement for new state constitutions, for home rule charters and for social legislation. Public welfare can be promoted in neither city nor country without the co-operation of each with the other, much less by either at the expense of the other.

Recreation is identified with industry in your community interests, play with work, leisure with labor. At last the leisure problem is regarded as great as the labor problem. Your section on recreation and your civic secretary will promote interests as vital to the community and as valuable to its life as its commercial, industrial and agricultural interests. The foundations for efficiency in team-work both in industry and citizenship are best laid by team-play in youth. The well-directed playground is as valuable an educational asset of any community or family or church as their day school or Sunday school.

Most significant of all you are doing here to-day is the emphasis laid upon the fact that public education is the most public thing there is, the one interest which is most common to all. The fact that your board of education has taken the initiative in creating the office of civic secretary of Neillsville and including that official in the staff of the public school system, while sharing his services with the commercial, industrial, agricultural and municipal interests of the same community, is the unique, outstanding feature of this occasion.

While Neillsville is the first place in which a civic secretary's whole time has thus been secured by the school authorities and shared with these other community-wide interests, many other towns and cities have led the way along parallel lines in the same general direction. Wisconsin's public school buildings housed 20,000 community assemblies of adult citizens during the past season. Seventy-two Wisconsin cities and towns have begun to use their school-houses as polling places. There are nearly 200 men and women employed by Wisconsin school boards in organizing and directing the community uses of public school plants outside of regular school hours. One Wisconsin city has spent $39,000 annually for the past four years in social center development and finds it a most profitable and economical investment.

Most suggestive of what is sure to follow is the fact that nine public school principals in Wisconsin have been made village or town clerks. What this means in the increase of efficiency both in public school teaching and in civic administration is indicated by the statement of one of these school principal-town clerks: "While I consider that my training for teaching made me a somewhat better town clerk, I am positive that my work and experience as town clerk have made me a much better teacher." This combination of the function of the old New England town clerk with the function of school principal is logically implied in the town meeting use of the public school-house. The United States Commissioner of Education, Philander P. Claxton, reports that for the first time in the nation's history the increase in the numerical proportion of women to men entering public school service has ceased and there is a slight but real and extremely significant relative increase in the number of men going into public school work. And his explanation of this is that strong men are beginning to see that public school work is to serve the children of the community not only, but its youths and adults as well.

Miss Wilson in her message to the citizens of Neillsville on this occasion finely ratifies this opinion by saying, "When school superintendents or their associates and school principals are made the servants of all of the community, instead of serving just the younger half, then their position will in my opinion be the highest in the community and first-rate men all over this country will be attracted to such positions."

This assumption by the public schools of the functions hitherto fulfilled by the voluntary agencies of private citizens, is only a part of the very general tendency for the state, county and city to take over the humanitarian service long regarded as the prerogative of the church. This tendency, so far from being either derogatory to, or a supersedure of, the churches, is the most public recognition of their success, as certified by the fact that the state thus takes up, carries on and extends this much of their work. It proves that the ideals of religion ministered through the churches are getting into law and administration. It means not that religion is being secularized, but that the secular is becoming religious.

At a great industrial and social crisis in English history, one of the prophets who turned the tide from its destructively revolutionary tendency toward its constructively evolutionary development, thus interpreted this very turn which our public affairs are taking: "Politics have been separated from household ties and affection, from art and science and literature. While they belong to parties, they have no connection with what is human and universal; when they become politics for the people, they are found to take in a very large field; whatever concerns man as a social being must be included in them. Politics for the people cannot be separated from religion."

The service of your civic secretary, therefore, may well be welcomed by every pastor, parent and teacher as an aid in making it easier to grow up good than bad in Neillsville. Every householder and property owner, and every public-spirited citizen and city official should co-operate with him in giving security and enhanced value to property by making it harder to do wrong and easier to do right in Neillsville. The best that the homes, the schools and the churches seek and work for will thus be transformed into the practical policies and progressive achievements of the community. Education and religion will thus at last be free to translate their ideals, standards and efficiency into social action.

What Liberty H. Bailey hopes for the country church will also be realized by each rural community whose citizens follow your lead:

"In some great day
  The country church
  Will find its voice
And it will say:

"I stand in the fields
Where the wide earth yields
  Her bounties of fruit and grain;
Where the furrows turn
Till the plowshares burn
  As they come round and round again;
Where the workers pray
With their tools all day
  In sunshine and shadow and rain.

"And I bid them tell
Of the crops they sell
  And speak of the work they have done;
I speed every man
In his hope and plan
  And follow his day with the sun;
And grasses and trees,
The birds and the bees
  I know and feel ev'ry one.

"And out of it all
As the seasons fall
  I build my great temple alway;
I point to the skies
But my footstone lies
  In the commonplace work of the day;
For I preach the worth
Of the native earth—
  To love and to work is to pray."[1]

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[1] In inducting Mr. Schatz to the office of civic secretary, Professor Taylor said:

"As your teacher, Walter P. Schatz, I ask you publicly to answer this question: Do you accept, and will you faithfully fulfil as best you can, the trust committed to you by your fellow-citizens as civic secretary of Neillsville, to serve and promote the commercial, municipal, recreational and educational interests of all the people, without fear or favor?"

Upon Mr. Schatz' assent, Professor Taylor added, "God help and speed you in so doing."

VOTERS' LEAGUES AND THEIR WORK

BY ROBERT E. CUSHMAN
Columbia University

IT GIVES a comforting sense of civic piety to berate the municipal voter for his ignorance and indifference. Orthodox and respectable persons have done this since municipal voters were. And the object of all this scolding still goes to the polls complacent and uninformed, makes a hasty selection of names from the substantial portion of the city directory which he finds on the ballot, and leaves the voting booth good-naturedly uncertain whether the John Jones for whom he voted for alderman is president of the first national bank or the bartenders' union. With unconscious satire we call this process municipal democracy. In the shadow of the voter's ignorance have moved the forces of corruption which have made American city government a reproach. But a decade or so ago, an eminently sensible idea came to groups of public-spirited citizens in some cities where conditions had grown wellnigh intolerable. The idea was that city government could never really improve so long as the common citizen continued to know nothing about the character and qualifications of most of the men for whom he voted, and that the common citizen would never be informed about these matters until some one undertook, systematically and thoroughly, the job of informing him. It was to undertake this job that voters' leagues were organized, and in the last election they threw the spotlight upon candidates and issues in more than a dozen of the largest cities in the country.

It is a wholesome cure for political pessimism to look periodically at these organizations and the work they do.[1] A voters' league in its simplest form, and its form is always simple, is a body of citizens, several hundred strong, working through an executive committee and paid secretary. Membership is usually open to any one who is interested enough to pay the annual dues or to make a minimum contribution.[2] The executive committee is, with one or two exceptions,[3] a self-perpetuating oligarchy which has absolute authority, with accompanying responsibility, to determine matters of policy and direct the labors of the secretary, the man who does the work. Expenses are met by the annual dues, voluntary subscriptions of members, and special gifts from men of wealth who believe in the work of the league. Contributions from candidates are not accepted, and in most cases all the sources of income are made public. The whole mechanism lends itself to direct and efficient action.

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[1] See article by Dixon Ryan Fox, "Voters' Leagues and their Critical Work," NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 664.

[2] A voter must be duly accepted for membership in the Citizens' Union of New York.

[3] The executive committee is elective in the Civic League of Cleveland, one fourth being chosen each year.

The voters' league undertakes the highly important task already suggested of presenting to the voter facts about candidates for office—facts which he ought to have, but which he will not, and in most cases cannot, gather for himself. This is no simple task. It means a minute and painstaking examination of the record of public officers. In Boston, for example, the Good Government Association selected 20 measures of general interest and showed how every city councilman seeking re-election last fall had voted or failed to vote upon each one. It involves a laborious search into the character and fitness of multitudinous aspirants for office, many of whom have no eagerness to help lift the obscurity which surrounds their past careers. In many cases the leagues give to candidates a chance to commit themselves, sometimes to pledge themselves, upon important issues. Thus a sort of platform of principles was presented, before the last election in Cleveland, to those running for city council, while a similar opportunity to declare himself was given to each local candidate for the constitutional convention by the New York Citizens' Union. The data obtained in these ways, sifted and weighed, form the basis for the endorsement of some candidates and the denunciation of others. The possession of facts justifies plain speaking and the following excerpts from the last election bulletins indicate that the leagues do not beat about the bush either in praise or blame.

AUGUST MEYER, Twelfth Ward. Saloon; completing first two years of service which should be his last; extremely poor record. The only important vote to Meyer's credit was for civil service classification. On all other questions treated in this report Meyer's vote was not creditable. He was largely to blame for defeat of scientific salary revision as stated in the report on that subject, and yet he advocated large increases in excess of all recommendations. Present but not voting on confirmation of appointments to sewerage commission. Absent 2 out of 100 sessions; present but not voting on 36 roll calls; absent 4 out of 52 committee meetings. Wholly incompetent and treated as a joke in the council. Should be retired.

JOSEPH DELEHANTY. Lithographer; resides 1431 E. 34th st.; age thirty-seven; parochial school training; formerly ball player with National League; bears a good reputation for honesty and industry; has had no experience or training which would fit him for the duties of councilman; signed League's platform.

JOHN A. ZANGERLE. Present auditor; resides 7107 Detroit ave.; age forty-eight; public school and university training; board of education 1890–91; member quadrennial board of assessors 1910–11; elected auditor in 1912; finishing first term; has instituted a number of improvements in the business methods of the office; has compiled and published valuable statistics on county finances; has uniformly observed the merit principle in appointments; he has been a thoroughly efficient auditor.

Sometimes these verdicts are rendered only upon candidates for city and county office, but frequently the local delegation in the state legislature also claims the attention of the league. At least four of these organizations[1] confine their energies entirely to the effort to secure the nomination and election of good men. This is due to the conviction, as expressed by the secretary of the Minneapolis Voters' League, that "you cannot well combine the work of a critical organization like ours with work along constructive lines." Most of the leagues do, however, exert their influence in other directions. The Citizens' Union of New York has permanent committees on the building code, city planning and the like. The Illinois Voters' League is trying to effect a reform in the procedure of the general assembly.

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[1] Those in Boston, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, and St. Louis.

Perhaps the most striking instance of this type of work, however, is the five-year campaign for a new city charter, waged and won by the Municipal League of Buffalo. But whether engaged in judging candidates or in other kinds of civic activity, the leagues never lose sight of the fact that their *raison d'être* is to educate the voter.

How do these voters' leagues make their influence felt? How do they bring the facts they have collected to the voter's attention? The easiest way is, of course, through the columns of the press, and the leading papers are, as a rule, glad to print as news-matter the report of a league. Printed bulletins and circulars containing recommendations upon candidates are also prepared. In some cases this literature is sent to a rather limited mailing list, three or four thousand names in Milwaukee for example. The Cleveland organization last fall reached in this way about one-third of the registered voters, while in Pittsburgh every citizen received the bulletin relating to city and county candidates. Some of the leagues depend upon the candidates they have endorsed to circulate their literature; in any case the facts are within easy reach of any citizen who cares to have them.

It is not possible to measure statistically the influence which these organizations for good government exert. "I do not believe," writes the secretary of the Pittsburgh Voters' League, "that the election of a candidate recommended by the league measures fifty per cent of the effective value of the organization. The greatest good accomplished by publishing reports on candidates is to force all parties and factions to put up a better class of candidates. I believe we have had much to do with raising the standard of candidates for political office in this district. I have never, therefore, allowed myself to analyze the election returns."

Perhaps in a majority of cases the electing of approved candidates has been subordinated to the impartial presentation of facts about all candidates, and very frequently the voters' league has committed what, from the standpoint of those intent upon winning an election, was a tactical blunder, by endorsing several worthy aspirants in the face of a solidified opposition, thus inviting defeat by encouraging the good government forces to split their vote.[1] But the leagues do help in electing good men. It is a significant tribute to their power that candidates anywhere should be willing to pay for the distribution of their bulletins, and, as a Milwaukee editor put it, "We have sometimes noticed that aspirants for office generally set a lot more store by the commendation of the league than they pretend to when they fail to get it." In November rather more than half of the candidates endorsed by the Voters' League were elected in Buffalo, from two-thirds to three-fourths in Cleveland, while the Good Government Association elected all three of its candidates to the city council in Boston. Other less definite reports seem to indicate that a goodly proportion of the recommendations made by voters' leagues everywhere were followed at the polls.

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[1] The Municipal Voters' League of St. Louis, however, refuses to recommend more than one candidate in such a case.

It is not surprising that this should be so. These organizations enjoy the confidence of the people because they merit that confidence. In the first place, they are disinterested. Their enemies may sneer at them as "community busybodies and professional uplifters," but they cannot charge them with using their influence for personal or partisan ends. Such an accusation would be refuted by practically every page of every bulletin the leagues have issued. Men of all parties are endorsed and men of all parties are condemned. The leagues do not put forth candidates of their own, but merely pass impartially upon those named by the regular parties. In the mayoralty contests where the character and qualifications of the candidates are matters of common knowledge, they make no recommendations at all, thus showing their desire to be free from any taint of partisanship. In the second place, these organizations do not try to domineer. If, in their opinion, two candidates are of equal merit, they say so. Every candidate deemed worthy is endorsed, no matter how numerous his competitors. "In this district all the legislative nominees of the three chief political parties are men of standing and ability for the positions they seek" is a statement frequently found in the bulletins issued. The voter is guided in his choice, but not coerced; he has little reason to feel that the league is trying to mark his ballot for him. But the highest claim that the voters' league has upon the confidence of the citizen is that its conclusions are based upon concrete facts. It has pleaded for no one, thundered against no one. But it has dispassionately put into black and white how this councilman voted on the franchise grab ordinance, whether that candidate for the legislature believes in the short ballot and home rule for cities, whether the aspirant for the position of coroner has adequate professional training. First, last, and always it deals in hard facts. This is the reason why it has an influence and why that influence will increase.

The more important voters' leagues now active are:

Boston, Citizens' Municipal League; Good Government Association.
Buffalo, Municipal League of Buffalo.

Chicago, Municipal Voters' League.
Cleveland, Civic League of Cleveland.
Denver, Civic League of Denver.
Illinois, Legislative Voters' League of the State of Illinois.
Milwaukee, Municipal Voters' League.
Minneapolis, Voters' League.
New York City, Citizens' Union of New York.
Pittsburgh, Voters' League.
Portland, Ore., Municipal Association.
St. Louis, Municipal Voters' League.
Seattle, Municipal League of Seattle.
Wheeling, W. Va., Municipal Voters' League.

MOTOR BUS DEVELOPMENTS AND POSSIBILITIES

BY WILLIAM RICHARD LITTLETON
University of Pennsylvania

THE motor bus is the natural born enemy of the street railway corporation. It is an enemy which is growing in strength and size each year as we see more clearly its many advantages and possibilities. As the motor bus in London is replacing the horse-drawn vehicles, so will the motor bus in this country replace the street railroad by its greater efficiency, or at least cause it to become a lesser factor in the great and ever-increasing problem of municipal transportation.

One of the great advantages of the motor bus is that each is an independent unit. The cost of operation and maintenance is far below that of the trolley car. There need be no central power plant, and the expensive track and overhead wires that have for years disfigured our streets are entirely eliminated. A breakdown or accident to one bus does not interfere with the others, whereas a broken wire or derailed car will tie up the street car line for hours. Besides the decreased expense of installation, bus lines can be rerouted at the discretion of the city authorities to suit the convenience of the public. Experimenting with new routes into the suburbs or within the city can be readily tried with little or no expense. It can bring about the rapid development of a sparsely populated section because its mobility enables it to run anywhere. If the new route does not pay, there is no great loss incurred through the laying of track and wire.

The bus can maintain a slightly higher average rate of speed than a tramway. It can start and stop more quickly and the establishment of an express service makes increased rapid transit a certainty by having a certain number of buses on the route stop only at designated points.

New York City has been one of the pioneers in this country in adopting the motor bus as a means of transportation. In a recent report by the bureau of franchises to the franchise committee, on an application now pending before the board of estimate and apportionment, made by four companies for the right to operate motor buses in the Borough of Manhattan, it was set forth that the aggregate length of all routes covered by the application is more than 150 miles. Each of the four applicants has asked for routes connecting the residential sections on the east and west sides of Central Park with what may be termed the hotel, theatre, wholesale and retail districts, containing also the terminal railway stations of the Pennsylvania and Long Island railroads at 33d Street and Seventh Avenue, and the New York Central and New York, New Haven and Hartford railroads at 42d Street. The routes which have been selected on the upper west side of the borough in addition to the west side route, are upon thoroughfares in which there are practically no street surface railways, and are designed to give special local service, as well as service in connecting the east and west side lines extending into the business district.

It is apparent that the motor bus companies are willing to give good service and the territory mentioned is completely covered. Nevertheless, in an effort to lay out a comprehensive system, the applications have been almost wholly disregarded because many more routes have been applied for than are necessary to form a comprehensive system. The experience which the city has had with the operation of motor buses has been so limited that it is believed the city should be very conservative in the number of routes which it authorizes in the beginning.

Many of our western cities are at present giving the auto bus serious and careful consideration. In Los Angeles, it has been estimated that forty thousand nickels which formerly were given daily to the street railways in payment for transporation, now go to the men who operate the five cent fare automobiles.

Some drivers figure on the wear and tear on the car, others merely consider the cost of gasoline. These latter say that a cent and three quarters or two cents a mile will cover the cost of operation, while the former add a cent for deterioration of their machines. These figures are for five passenger cars, the kind most commonly used.

One of the pioneers in auto transportation in Los Angeles has estimated carefully on the cost of running his five passenger car per day. He makes 18 round trips daily, averaging 50 cents a round trip and thus taking in $9 every day. All this is not net to him, however, as he figures the wear and tear on his automobile and the cost of operation at 3 cents a mile and the round trip is a matter of eight miles. But even then there is a profit of $4.68 a day.

Besides several double-decked bus lines in Los Angeles, there are some eighty automobiles on a single route; while other lines increase the number of machines so used to between 250 and 300; and the prediction is made that when the men thus engaged perfect their organization and establish new routes, that fully twice as many machines will begin service.

The strongest argument set forth by the people is that they get home more quickly; and with the public taking that view, and the owners of automobiles willing to carry them for five cents, the prediction is that in time the auto buses will entirely supersede the street cars, not only of Los Angeles but in all large cities throughout the world.

It is the opinion of City Attorney Stephens of Los Angeles that the council could not compel the auto bus people to take out franchises; but he expressed the opinion that these concerns could be regulated. The question as to what extent the bus lines can be regulated is before the utilities board and the council. Compelling operators of bus lines to file indemnity bonds is one method sought for regulation. This has been objected to on the ground that street car lines have not been compelled to file indemnity bonds. Another method suggested for regulation was that of requiring them to run on regularly stated routes and on a definite schedule.

Notwithstanding the fact that the commissioners of Pasadena, Cal., have passed restrictive ordinances on the operation of motor bus lines, the taxpayers protective association placed itself on record as favoring a new motor bus ordinance. A. C. Ong on behalf of the bus people declared that if the citizens of Pasadena were fully aware of the effect of this sweeping ordinance on the interests of every citizen of Pasadena, that 90 per cent of the taxpayers and residents would gladly petition the rescinding of the drastic measures taken. He said that auto bus drivers should be encouraged, and that an ordinance should be enacted that will extend further advantages and accommodations to the residents of the city.

Ira F. Thompson, attorney for the Pacific Motor Coach Company, which had been denied the privilege of running over one section of the route between Pasadena and Los Angeles, said that it was all done in the interests of the Southern Pacific, who own and control the electric lines. It is evident from this that the future success of the motor bus cannot be accomplished without a long, hard fight, a fight against wealth, well-established interests, whose power to control municipal legislation is practically unlimited in many instances.

Chicago has been quite successful in the establishment of an auto-bus line. The Chicago Automobile Transportation Company has made application for permission to run a line of double-decked buses, each with a capacity of thirty-five passengers, the fare being ten cents. The service will include trips through the park system and will carry passengers from "the loop" to their houses in a fourth less time than is taken by the street cars.

In looking for past experience and actual costs of operation, it is necessary to refer to the cities of Europe. There the auto bus has been running longer and has been more extensively used than in any of our American cities. City ownership there has already begun. Subject to the approval of Parliament, Birmingham, England, proposes to purchase some 30 omnibuses and plant for $165,000. This purchase will give the city the monopoly of the motor omnibus service within its boundaries under the agreement that, while through omnibuses from outside points may be run by the original company into the city and by the city into the country, neither is to pick up any but through passengers within the limits of the other's activities.

The cost per mile ranges from 13.374 d. to as low as 4.83 d. In nearly every case the buses operate in different districts where the roads are not of the best. In showing exact calculations per car mile in different cities of England we have:

Birmingham	9.288 d.
Oldham	13.374 d.
Rotherham	6.78 d.
Sheffield	6.675 d.
Warringdon	7.636 d.
Wolverhampton	8.287 d.

As showing the extent to which motor omnibuses are being called into municipal service, it is interesting to note that nearly fifty local authorities now operate, or have power to operate, these vehicles.

In making a fair comparison between the motor bus and the street car, we must take into consideration the fact that the bus travels over a municipally-owned highway, wearing down and depreciating the road, while the street car furnishes its own surface and pays for its depreciation. Nevertheless there is nothing to indicate that the wood-paved roads, as a whole, were costing more to maintain. It was stated definitely that in Westminster, England, wood-paved roads have cost less to maintain and that this year the cost was less than it was eight years ago. In taking a certain road the car mileage of the buses was calculated and allowing that the levy for this form of traffic would be $\frac{3}{8}$ d. per car mile, £4000 would have been received, whereas the total cost of maintenance was only £2800. It was also clearly stated that the effect of the motor bus was no different from that of any other form of traffic, provided the road was suitable and was kept in a reasonable state of repair; the motor bus was reasonably proportioned in the weight of the load on the wheel in contact with the road surface and that therefore, so far as ordinary wear and tear were concerned, the motor bus did no more harm than the standard type of motor car; that the motor car travelling at high speed did as much damage when the road was in a bad state as the heavier vehicle travelling at the slower speed usual with such vehicles. It may be taken that wherever there is a road on which more than 1,000 buses run per day, the amount collected from a levy on those buses will more than cover the total cost of the maintenance of the roadway, even if provided with the most expensive pavement.[1]

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[1] Motor buses in England have unexpectedly been of national as well as local aid. It is stated that several thousands of London motor buses and drivers have gone to the front and rendered invaluable aid in transport work. Practically the whole of the single decked motor buses have been converted into motor ambulances.

Taking into consideration the case of the street car, the rail is at a fixed level and does not wear equally with the other material forming the road structure; the vehicles using the side of the road track each other; in other words, the traffic is concentrated, and therefore the wear is very severe. Wood paving, when it forms the whole surface of a road without car rails, may be allowed to wear away to the extent of an average of 2¼ inches, but it would be impossible to allow a roadway 10 feet wide to wear 2¼ inches; if the wear shows more than 1¼ inches, the paving becomes so bad that it has to be removed and renewed. Therefore, if the road is in regard to half its width taken up by car rails, the remaining half costs nearly twice as much to maintain as the whole road did formerly—*i. e.* before the car rails were laid, and the relief to the ratepayer is of little or no account.

In summing up the facts it is plainly apparent that the many advantages of auto bus transportation give a municipality:

(1) Quicker and easier service.

(2) An increase of revenues.

(3) An elimination of excessive noise.

(4) A better chance for expansion and increased suburban and interurban service.

(5) An opportunity for increasing the beauty of the city by the elimination of car tracks and overhead wires, and for an appreciation of street width.[1]

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[1] Concerning the use of motor buses, the *Municipal Journal* of July 24, 1913, editorially said:

> The adopting of motor buses by Huntington, Ind., in place of street cars running on rails, raises the question whether the time has come or is coming when this can be adopted as a more or less general practice by small cities and villages. With more perfect roads and improved motors it is certainly more practicable than it was ten years ago.
>
> There are several arguments in favor of buses as compared with cars running on tracks. Some of these are mentioned in the article, but there are others, among them the following: No special area of street is turned over to a private corporation. The smoothness and life of the roadway pavement are not lessened by the presence of rails throughout its length. No poles or wires are necessary (the underground trolley is too expensive a construction for small communities). The noise of steel tire on steel rail is avoided—a most serious objection on residence streets. It would not be possible for one or two property owners to prevent the operation over a given route by refusing their consent to laying track in front of their properties, as is so often done where trolley lines are proposed and even needed. A mistake in judgment in locating a route is by no means irreparable—a change requires only the consent of the franchise granting power. In fact, the route might be changed from hour to hour during each day, as the users of the buses desired to go to or from the factories, the shopping district, the amusement center, etc. A temporary obstruction, such as repairing a road, need occasion little inconvenience to buses other than making a detour of a block.
>
> A serious question is whether the cost of power and of maintaining heavy buses traveling over roads never as smooth as rails, especially when the power is in the form of storage batteries as compared with a central power house, can be kept low enough to make the enterprise a paying one with 5-cent fares.

NOTES AND EVENTS

I. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION.

Commission and Commission-Manager Government. — The last few months have presented a period of incubation rather than of actual accomplishments in the adoption of new city charters. A number of important movements are pending and new laws have been introduced in this year's legislatures which later on may bring forth very considerable advances.

For example, in *Iowa* a bill has recently been introduced providing for the adoption of the commission-manager form. In this state there have been several cities employing city managers under the old system. This, however, has proved, apparently, a rather unsatisfactory practice, and the plan now is to secure the city-manager feature in a more stable form. It is regretted that the law proposed does not give the city manager the powerful control which is really necessary in order to carry out the idea of expert management. Iowa seems to think of the city manager as a sort of superintendent of public works.

In *Indiana* a bill was introduced in February providing for an optional law permitting any city to adopt either the regular form of commission government or the city-manager form. In a general way this bill conforms to the orthodox plans.

A joint committee of the two houses of the *Massachusetts* legislature reported early in the year in favor of the passage of a law which would permit Massachusetts cities to adopt any one of four forms of simplified government. One of these is the city-manager form and another provides for the commission form of the regular type. Doubtless the action of this committee was affected by the long and thorough discussion of the city-manager plan and the federal form which has been going on during the past few months in Springfield before the citizens committee of one hundred. This committee, composed of representatives of all of the civic bodies in the city, decided on January 22, by a vote of 58 to 45 in favor of the commission-manager system. The latter virtually represented a compromise between the advocates of the straight out commission plan and those who favored the federal system, for up to this year there has been practically no sentiment in favor of the city-manager form.

San Diego, California, which has been for some years operating under the commission plan, voted recently on the adoption of what may be termed a "freak" charter, providing among other things for the return to a very complicated system with a number of elected administrative officers. In spite of very bad weather the people turned out in sufficient numbers to down this proposition by a large majority. The plan now is to have a city-manager charter submitted to the people in time for action by this year's session of the California legislature.

A bill prepared by the *Missouri* League of Municipalities, providing for the commission-manager form has been introduced in the legislature and has been recommended, with slight amendments, out of committee in both houses. If the bill passes it is likely that the University of Missouri will establish a curriculum for the training of municipal executives.

An event of some significance is the adoption in *Hoboken, New Jersey*, of the commission form by a majority of three votes in a total of about 7,000. This was the third attempt to adopt the plan in that city. Other cities which have adopted the regular commission plan since the first of December are *Santa Monica, California; Effingham, Highland Park, Joliet, Coal City* and *Sterling, Illinois; Harrods-*

burg, Hopkinsville and *Middlesboro, Kentucky; Eaton Rapids, Michigan;* and *Asbury Park, New Brunswick and Bayonne, New Jersey.*

In *Tucson, Arizona,* the Republican ticket elected last November was pledged to employ a city manager and to follow as far as the law allowed, the general plan which goes with that office. Success attended the party and C. K. Clark, a non-resident of the city and the state was appointed to the position. Although the mayor and council retain the legal right to make appointments, they promise not to exercise it except upon recommendations of the city manager.

A charter providing for a commission of twelve members and a city manager was adopted in *Sherman, Texas,* on March 6.[1]

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Elective Coroners Condemned.—On June 13, 1914, at the request of the New York City Club, Mayor Mitchel ordered the commissioner of accounts to make an investigation of the accounts and methods of the coroners' offices throughout the city. This investigation was immediately begun, and the report of the commissioner has recently been transmitted to the mayor. The worst fears of those who had seen glimpses of the coroners' office in action were found to be amply justified.

The report of the commissioner shows that the coroners' office represents a combination of abused power, obscurity, irresponsibility, inefficiency and malfeasance in office to an extent that could hardly have been increased had the system been designed to give the worst administration possible.

Of the 65 men who held the office of coroner since the consolidation of Greater New York, not one was found to have been qualified by training or experience for the adequate performance of his duties. Nearly all had been nominated "to balance the ticket," to represent a given race, religion, class, or faction. Most of them have been absurdly ignorant as to the legal and medical aspects of their work. Favorite causes of death have been assigned without shadow of reason to doubtful cases, and terms rejected by modern science as meaningless have frequently been used in the statements of the causes of deaths.

The coroners' physician has been a law unto himself. Such disciplinary power as is possessed by the board of coroners has been used to harass and embarrass the most competent of all of their physicians, and not to improve in any way the character of their medical work. As an example of the utter incompetence of coroners' physicians, there were submitted 800 inquisition papers, 40 per cent of which, or 320 cases, showed a complete lack of evidence to justify the certified cause of death. One case in particular where the coroner's physician applied his favorite cause of death—chronic nephritis or Bright's disease—was found to be a murder case in which the deceased came to his death by a fracture of the skull caused probably by a hammer blow. The undertaker found a gaping wound in the head which even the most superficial examination could not have failed to discover.

The coroners' juries have proved as incompetent and corrupt as the coroners' physicians. Juries have frequently been packed with friends of the defendants before them, and as frequently have been used as a means of petty extortion. The records of the cases have been meager, uninforming and practically valueless. In July, 1914, after the investigation was begun, papers in 431 cases, involving possible criminality, were filed with the district attorney. Sixty-three of these were over three years old, and nearly two hundred were over one year old, notwithstanding the fact that such records are required by law to be filed *forthwith* with the district attorney. The coroners' system instead of detecting crime has become a notorious agency for shielding defendants and concealing crime, particularly in cases of criminal abortion. Coroners have frequently abused their powers to compel the employment of favorite undertakers by the unfortunate families of deceased persons. Probably no other department of the city has ever given so little of real value for so large a cost. The maintenance of the present elective system amounting to $172,000 per year has been an utter waste. The coroner, supposed to be a medico-legal officer, has had to engage a mediocre physician to perform the medical functions mentioned above, and were he required to engage a lawyer of like calibre to perform his legal functions, the travesty would be complete.

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[1] H. S. Gilbertson, New York.

With this condition of official incompetence and criminality before them, it is no wonder that the citizens of New York are determined to rid themselves of this scandalous abuse of power. A bill has been introduced in the state legislature, abolishing the office of coroner, and entrusting his magisterial functions to the judiciary, while placing the responsibility for criminal investigation entirely in the hands of the police department. In place of the corrupt coroners' office, a competent system of medical examination is to be established. Such a system has been in successful operation in Massachusetts for forty years. Under it, skilful and experienced pathologists will determine how deceased persons came to their deaths, and for the first time the science of legal medicine will be used to protect the community. Such a system will result in a saving of at least $50,000 a year, besides removing an ugly stain upon the city's record.

It is hoped that New York will succeed in freeing itself from the excessive cost and degrading influence of the elective coroners' system.[1]

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Public Service Day with the Mechanical Engineers.—At the annual meeting of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, held in New York City, December 1–4, 1914, there was an all-day session, under the auspices of the public relations committee, on the general subject the engineer in public service.

Director Cooke of the department of public works, Philadelphia, in a paper entitled "Controlling Factors in Municipal Engineering," emphasized the necessity for the cultivation on the part of the engineering profession of a broader interest in public matters. He pointed out further that the matter of viewpoint and genuine public interest are as essential to the engineer who is advising a city as are ability and experience, and that judging by this standard there are in certain fields of engineering, particularly in public utilities, almost no engineers who are at present available for the service of the public and who at the same time have had sufficient experience for large undertakings. Systematic and aggressive advertising methods as an agency for developing an appreciation on the part of the public of all the factors entering into the problems of municipal engineering.

"Training for the Municipal Service in Germany" was the title of a paper read by Prof. Clyde Lyndon King, of the University of Pennsylvania. Dr. King gave in detail the courses, given in many German colleges, which prepare adequately for the municipal service. Instances were cited of tendencies in some American universities along this line and the conclusion was reached that while American universities are doing much, they are not offering the practical, definite preparation for public service that is being offered by many German institutions, and that the courses of study offered and the plans for municipal colleges in Germany point to endless possibilities for adaptation in the courses and work being offered in American colleges and universities, to the end that the public employe may be more adequately and efficiently trained for the work he will be called upon to perform.

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The Utilities Bureau.—The trustees of the bureau, which was organized in November, 1914, met on December 30 in Philadelphia. Director Cooke of the department of public works, was chosen acting director; Dr. Charles R. Van Hise, President of the University of Wisconsin, was chosen as president of the board of trustees; Mr. S. S. Fels, as treasurer, and Dr. Clyde Lyndon King, secretary. It was decided that the activities of the Bureau should include, among other things, the following:

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[1] From Wayne D. Heydecker, Assistant Secretary of the City Club.

1. To collect and collate data from all available sources as to rates, service standards, and cost factors in municipal utilities.
2. To prepare these data so that they may be of service to cities, public bodies, interested citizens, and corporations.
3. To assist cities by study and advice as to their utility problems.
4. To codify the decisions of public service commissions and other judicial or quasi-judicial bodies affecting utility matters.
5. To obtain and maintain a list of engineers, lawyers, accountants, valuation and other qualified experts.
6. To publish and disseminate information pertaining to the service standards, rates, franchises, public contracts and any and all other matters of interest and value to the public and to corporations, regarding the construction, operation, maintenance and regulation of public utilities.
7. To encourage the introduction of cost keeping methods, similar to those found in the industries, among all utilities whether publicly or privately owned, and to develop standard forms and methods for reporting basic facts as to utility matters.
8. In general, to serve as a national agency in which American cities may coöperate in exchanging data as to rates, service standards, and cost factors in municipal utilities.[1]

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Utility Notes.—*Electric Plant for Trenton.* Mayor Frederick W. Donnelly of Trenton, New Jersey, submitted in November, 1914, a special message to the commissioners urging that the city buy up at once the water rights owned by the Trenton water power company with the thought of developing electric power in a plant municipally owned and operated. The mayor pointed out that such a plan would "lay the foundation for future development" and "will make municipal problems easier and freer for subsequent bodies to follow." He referred to the project as one "vital to the future development of Trenton, its manufacturers and its citizens in general. That the Delaware River, flowing past our door, offers great opportunity for development far beyond the power already obtained from the stream, is a matter of common knowledge and comment among experts engaged in the work of developing natural resources. And the time is, and should not be far distant, when improvement and development to consume the entire flow of this river will be made and this vast amount of power, now going to waste, utilized in the form of electrical energy, in our industries and municipalities."

Duluth Water Plant.—The year, ending January 1, 1915, was a prosperous one for the Duluth water plant, according to the statement made to its patrons by R. A. Reed, the manager. His statement of gross income and expenditures is as follows:

Total gross earnings from private customers	$534,896.12
Cash from city for hydrant rentals.................	49,546.70
From city ½ mill tax......	24,554.90
	$608,997.72
Operating expenses........	$278,117.33
Interest on bonds.........	151,026.07
Depreciation reserve......	73,411.00
Sinking fund.............	106,443.32
	$608,997.72

Mr. Reed contends that the $74,101.60, coming in from cash and the one-half mill tax levy from the city is not adequate compensation for the fire protection furnished. A physical valuation is now under way, however, upon which the proper proportion of fire protection costs can be definitely determined. In other cities the size of Duluth, this item varies from 30 to 40 per cent of the total cost. The depreciation reserve and sinking fund moneys are being invested in extensions which earn the department 8 per cent in cash. The extensions are being granted as fast as petitions are signed. This does not use up all of these funds, however, by an amount in excess of $100,000, and it is suggested that this sum be invested by the water department in increasing the city's lighting facilities for serving customers in Western Duluth with electricity as well as with gas.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. iii, p. 751.

Cleveland's municipal light plant[1] is still furnishing electric current at a maximum of three cents to private consumers, though the Cleveland electric illuminating company has appealed to the Ohio public service commission to over-rule the ordinance fixing this rate. Cleveland officials presented figures to show that the Cleveland municipal light plant had been furnishing three cent light at a profit for more than a year. The company contended that, on the figures for its own plant, this cannot be done.

The Municipal Home Rule League of Pennsylvania has presented a bill in the Pennsylvania House of Representatives, repealing the present public service company law. The opposition to the law is based on the ground that it deprives cities of needed rights and powers. An alternative measure is supported by the Home Rule League, granting to the Public Service Commission powers over common carriers and other public utilities serving the state at large, the local courts to have jurisdiction over the affairs of local communities.

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San Francisco's Street Railway.[2]—The financial report of the Geary Street municipal railway of San Francisco for the year ending December 31, 1913, shows the following:

Operating revenues		$444,747.73
Passenger revenues	$444,393.13	
Rent of buildings	354.60	
Operating expenses		291,431.36
Way and structures	5,659.27	
Equipment	10,561.35	
Traffic	81.75	
Conducting transportation	182,097.13	
General and Miscellaneous	8,389.94	
General (comparison charges required by charter)	4,587.33	
Depreciation—18% of gross revenue	80,054.59	
Net operating revenue		153,316.37
Add miscellaneous income from municipal bonds owned		1,328.64
Gross income, less operating expenses		154,645.01
Deductions from income		109,340.54
Net profit for year		$ 45,304.47

That this net profit is inclusive of the expenditures which the opponents to public operation often claim are never included, is shown by the facts that the general expenditures include $29,628.54 for the cost of elections; $11,450.00 for legal services, and $1,192.79 for miscellaneous expenditures, classified as follows: Engraving bonds, $620; bond books $115.79; bond circulars and advertising sales, $107, installation of accounting procedure, $350. Operating expenses are 65.5 per cent of operating revenues, the net operating revenue being 34.5 per cent of the total operating revenues. The amount laid aside for depreciation included under operating expenses is 18 per cent of the gross revenue. The following expenditures were made for road and equipment: For road, $1,312,665.33; for equipment, $348,802.97. The number of cars in use in December, 1912, was 9; the number in use in December, 1913, 39. The number of revenue passengers carried during the year was 8,882,996.[1]

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Detroit United Railway.—Prof. Edward W. Bemis is engaged in making the appraisal of the Detroit United Railway which will be used as a basis for the purchase of the railway by the city. Other

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 773.

[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, pp. 467, 476; vol. iii, p. 554.

[1] From Prof. Clyde L. King.

"experts" have been on the case. Professor Cooley of Michigan University submits an appraisal on April 1, while Prof. David M. Friday, of that institution, is the franchise expert in the employ of the company.

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Telephones.—The *Manitoba* government telephones have made a distinct growth in the six years since they were taken under public ownership, according to the official statement issued by Commissioner George A. Watson. The gain in subscriptions from January, 1908, to January, 1914, was 31,768, an average annual gain of 5,294. The province claims that this average of 9.7 telephones per 100 population is higher than in any other similar section of the North American continent, the highest average elsewhere being 8.8 telephones per 100 population. The average in the city of Winnipeg is 11.1 telephones per 100 population. The average in the balance of the province is 8.2 telephones per 100 population. "Many uncomplimentary remarks and statements have been passed recently," says Commissioner Watson, "applying to public ownership generally, but upon analysis it is usually found the statements or remarks are issued for selfish or other reasons, and intended to discourage the public in participating in the government ownership of public utilities."

More or less reliable information, of a negative character, on government telegraph and telephone systems can be gleaned from an address delivered by F. G. R. Gordon at the fifteenth annual meeting of the National Civic Federation, Friday, December 4, 1914.[1]

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Ice as a Public Utility.—Bakersfield, California, has adopted a charter which declares ice to be a public utility. So far as we are advised no other city in the west has taken that advanced step. To quote the San Bernardino *Sun*, "Even Los Angeles will be compelled to admit that for once it has overlooked something in the way of innovations. Other cities have assumed the right to make and sell ice, and the courts have upheld the assumption, on the theory that it is only another form of water, the right to deal in which municipally, is long established. Courts may also have viewed ice as in itself something of a necessity and proper for municipal ownership. But the Bakersfield move involves quite another question. If ice is a public utility, the recently adopted constitutional amendment puts the regulation of all utilities into the hands of the railroad commission, which is really a full-fledged public utility commission, and therefore the regulation of the price of ice is in future to be controlled by this body."

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One Meter Reader and One Bill, instead of three readers and three bills, for water, gas and electric service is the recently adopted practice of Bonn, Germany, under municipal ownership.

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Municipal Markets.—In November, a municipal market was established in *Chattanooga, Tennessee.* Stalls are rented at 50 cents a front foot; but the commissioner in charge has authority to raise the amount to 75 cents at the end of six months, and to one dollar at the end of twelve months. From all reports, the market is proving a great success.

The annual report of the superintendent of markets, of *Columbus, Ohio*, for the year 1913 shows the following:

Receipts from all markets	$33,292.33
Expenses for all markets..	20,800.00
Total net receipts.......	12,492.00

The superintendent of market points out that the receipts would have been greater had it not been for the flood which occurred in March, 1913, during which business was crippled, and heavy losses resulted.[1]

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Salem to Regulate Its Housing.—When on June 26, 1914, Salem, Massachusetts, suffered the penalty of neglect, she had at least begun to think of reforming. The flames that swept away so large a part of her dwellings gave her the opportunity to build something better than the crowded wooden three-deckers which had already been condemned by the city plans commission as a menace to health and life.

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[1] From Dr. Clyde Lyndon King, University of Pennsylvania.

[1] From Dr. Clyde Lyndon King.

At first it seemed that Salem had learned only one lesson by the fire, the wisdom of using a less inflammable material than frame in its building construction. Fortunately, however, the work of rebuilding was not undertaken with a rush. Before many projects had been actually started winter checked operations. This gave time for thought and as a result Salem will probably set far higher standards for her dwellings in the future than she did in the past. The burned area is under control of a state-appointed rebuilding commission which has unusual power in determining the character of buildings that may be erected. Though it has not adopted a code and though its policy has not been definitely announced, the new buildings which have received its sanction and are now under way provide more adequately for both health and safety than did their predecessors. The most discouraging thing about them is the apparent tendency toward large brick barracks. The lead in developing this type of dwelling has been taken by the Naumkeag mills to house some of its employees.

Over this district the authority of the city officials is for the time being in abeyance, at least so far as control over building is concerned. Yet it is to the city authorities that we must look for the best response to the lessons of the fire. The Salem planning board, successor to the city plans commission, has taken up the work of the latter and drafted a housing ordinance. The form set by the model housing law was followed with modifications of detail. It is hoped that this code will have the effect that similar codes have had in Columbus and Duluth in encouraging the erection of single family houses and so give the Salem of the future reason to look back upon June 26 as the day of a new birth to a better social life than it knew before. This wholesome tendency toward a higher type of dwelling is being encouraged by the rebuilding trust, a body financed with money from the Salem relief committee, which is giving financial aid to home builders. Its influence is being thrown on the side of the single family house, and with its influence go plans, specifications and practical advice.[1]

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Public Health Notes.—A *Public Health Exhibit* was held under the auspices of the City Club of Chicago during December and January. Among the subjects emphasized were ventilation, fresh air schools and other means of combating tuberculosis and the health inspection of school children.

As a further *protection of the milk supply* of Montclair, N. J., the board of health has recently required that all milk dealers must file certificates signed by reputable physicians to the effect that all employes who handle milk sold in the town are free from communicable diseases. Other requirements to insure safer milk have also been added to milk regulations which were already strict and comprehensive. Copies of these milk regulations may be secured from Chester H. Wells, health officer, Montclair, N. J.

A *record death rate* for New York City was attained in 1914—13.4 per 1,000, compared with 13.76 for 1913 and 14.1 for the registration area of the United States in 1913. The New York infant mortality rate for 1914 was 95 and for 1913 it was 102 per 1,000 births—records to be proud of and which should put many other cities to shame.

An *intensive study of infant mortality* in Johnstown, Pa., made by the children's bureau of the United States department of labor, showed 271 deaths per 1,000 births during the year in the poorest section of the city, which was five times the rate in the best residential section. Other striking comparisons are: An infant death rate of 256 per 1,000 among babies whose fathers earned less than $10 a week, compared with 84 where the fathers earned $25 or more per week; 198 per 1,000 in houses without water, and 118 where water was piped in; 166 per 1,000 among babies fed exclusively with artificial foods up to three months of age, compared with 47 among babies who were breast-fed for three months. It should be interjected, however, that other conditions than those specifically named may account for some of the differences in infant mortality rates. The Johnstown report was written by Miss Emma Duke, under the direction of Miss Julia Lathrop, chief of the children's bureau. Other cities now being studied are Manchester, N. H., Brockton, Mass., and Saginaw, Mich.[1]

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[1] From John Ihlder, Field Secretary, National Housing Association.

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English Cities During War Times.—The effect of the war on English municipal activities is very marked. The employes of local authorities, however, are setting an admirable example. The men who are still at their posts are not only giving of their time and their work, but they are reserving a definite percentage of their salaries and wages for the relief of those upon whom the burdens of war press most heavily. The local authorities have encouraged the officers and men by making arrangements to insure that dependents will not suffer; the principle being adopted is "full salaries or wages less government pay, and appointment available on return." The local authorities have not adopted a nervous attitude toward the situation, but they are inclined to take advantage of the opportunity that now presents itself to carry out useful schemes that are likely to be of permanent value to the community. These schemes provide employment for a large number of workmen, who, with their dependents, would otherwise have to be supported by the rates. In general, these proposed works are of permanent value to the community. They conform to a definite public need and are of such a character that local work-people can be employed in their usual occupations. Lastly, normal wages are being generally paid for the work completed, and inefficient labor is rarely employed merely because of its cheapness. Here are some concrete examples of municipal activity in the British cities:

Belfast. The employes of the corporation gas works have decided unanimously to contribute a proportion of their earnings towards the alleviation of distress consequent upon the war. The city council is constructing a new road six and one-half miles long.

Glasgow. All the members of the police force have agreed to contribute one day's pay to the Glasgow branch of the Prince of Wales' national relief fund. The city council has instructed the several committees to enter upon the construction of certain authorized works. These include works to the value of £26,406 to be carried but by the baths department; £6,200 by the city improvement department; £41,536 by the electrical department; the erection of city libraries at a cost of about £20,000, the laying out of two eighteen-hole golf courses and three bowling greens by the park department; the construction of filter beds by the sewage department; the erection of a hospital at a cost of £25,000; and other works involving in all an expenditure well over half a million pounds sterling.

There are over 5,000 employes in the tramways department and they have arranged to give a total of £3,000 during the next six months, payable by weekly installments, to the war relief fund.

London. The City Corporation has decided to contribute £10,000 towards the national distress fund. The central unemployed body is submitting to the Local Government Board various schemes of relief work estimated to cost £195,500 and to provide employment for 7,665 men for twenty weeks.

New central offices will be erected for the metropolitan water board at a cost of £110,012. The Northeastern hospital will be reconstructed at a cost of upwards of £150,000. The sanction of the Local Government Board is being asked for three sanitaria for consumptives, the building contracts for which are estimated to run into considerable more than £10,000.

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[1] From M. N. Baker, Montclair, N. J.

South Port. The relief work proposals include the development of a lagoon site, the extension of the golf links and the improvement of the north marine park. The municipal officers guild has suggested to its membership that they should make regular contributions to a fund to meet local needs during the war. The scale of contribution being from 3d per week by those receiving less than £52 a year to 5s. by those receiving £600 a year and upwards.

Lancashire. The authorities are considering a proposal to construct a new road from Blackpool to Poulton. The road board has offered a contribution of £20,000. The education committee is arranging classes for evening instruction, and military camps and other places in which subjects will be taught specially designed to meet the wants of men serving with the colors and to provide occupation for the men in the evening.

Liverpool. It is proposed to borrow £40,000 in this city for electrical mains. The widening of a portion of one of the roadways is being considered at a cost of £15,710, of which the road board will contribute £5,000. The city council has placed the city hospital of seven hundred beds at the disposal of the war office and if additional accommodation is to be required the public baths are to be offered.

Nottingham. The Carter Gate housing scheme is to be commenced very soon.

Plymouth. The road board has offered a grant of £1,000 towards the cost estimated at £3,000 of improving one of the roads in Plymouth.

Swansea. The town clerk has applied to the road board for grants in respect of the cost of proposed improvements to various highways in the borough; the estimated cost to amount to £53,984.

Chesterfield. The widening of certain streets is being promoted with vigor in this city.

York. A scheme has been submitted to the council for the erection of twenty-eight cottages for the accommodation of corporation tramway employees.

Mansfield. The town council is erecting forty houses at an estimated cost, including street works, of £7,000. The cost of the land is put at £965.

Devon. The district council has received sanction to obtain a loan of £5,500 for a water supply at Topsham. The work is to be proceeded with at once so as to provide employment during the winter.

Halifax. The water works committee has decided to provide shelters for the special constables required to guard the reservoirs during the winter months and to arm them.

Southend-on-sea. Wounded soldiers staying at Queen Mary's Royal Hospital are being granted free admission to the pier and free use of the corporation tramways.

Heywood. The town council has decided that all premises in the borough occupied by Belgian refugees shall be supplied with gas free and that they shall be exempt from the borough and general district rates.[1]

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A New Morals Commission in Chicago.—The members of the permanent morals commission recently authorized by city ordinance appointed by Mayor Harrison are: The commissioner of health, Dr. George B. Young, *ex officio;* Rev. W. J. McNamee, rector of St. Bridget's Roman Catholic Church; John Kelling, formerly president of the United Societies; Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch, of Sinai Temple; Dr. Anna Dwyer, of the Morals Court. Rabbi Hirsch is the only member of the former morals commission. Eight thousand dollars have been appropriated for the executive work of the commission.

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[1] Robert M. Jameson, University of Texas.

II. POLITICS[1]

Boston's Councilmanic Election.—At Boston's municipal election on December 15, 1914, three members of the city council of nine were to be elected and two members of the school committee of five. The three candidates endorsed by the Good Government Association for city council were elected, leading the polls, and one of the Public School Association's candidates for the school committee was elected. Only two out of the three members of the council were old members. The new member is a business man, active in the Chamber of Commerce and familiar with municipal problems. "For the most part," the Boston *Transcript* points out, "the council's membership has been composed of lawyers, young men just getting a start in their activities. It has been the cause of much disappointment on the part of the Municipal League that more men of broad experience and business training have not been attracted to the work of the city government. Two years ago the association, while speaking in high terms of the men elected to the council with its endorsement, announced that from that time every effort would be made to induce business men to run for these offices. This year the association expected a substantial answer to its appeal, but only one man of the type, Mr. Hagan, responded, and he did so at considerable personal sacrifice. It is interesting to note that of the nine members of the city council, all but two, William H. Woods and James A. Watson, have been candidates of the association."

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The Recall in Salem, Mass.—After having been elected five times mayor of Salem, four times for a term of one year and one time for a term of three years, Mayor John F. Hurley was recalled on December 29 and Mathias J. O'Keefe elected in his place. This is the first time that the modern recall has been used in a New England city and it represents a rather interesting experience. The Boston *Transcript* in commenting on the situation pointed out that the civic standards of Salem are evidently being improved, as Mayor Hurley served quite as well during his latest term as during his previous one. It also said, "There may be a limit to the magic of the old silk tile which failed to show staying power in one instance in the state election as well as now in Salem." This has reference to the fact that Mayor Hurley always wore an old-fashioned silk hat and was a "picturesque poseur." Further quoting from the *Transcript*, "A city cannot be run forever on the basis of personal eccentricity. When there are laws for its government there are always some peculiar people who insist upon having them carried out." The action of Salem must be regarded as a step forward.

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The New York Constitutional Convention that will meet in Albany in April will contain 116 Republicans and 52 Democrats. Of the 153 district delegates, 101 are Republicans and 52 Democrats. All the delegates elected at large are Republicans. According to the figures prepared by the New York City Club the Democrats carried only 17 of the 51 senatorial districts, and of these only one, the forty-ninth, was wholly above the Bronx. The forty-ninth is a part of the city of Buffalo.

In the opinion of the City Club the more important proposals to be considered by the convention are measures providing for:

1. Home rule for cities and villages; 2. Short ballot reform; 3. Appointive non-partisan judiciary; 4. Reform tending to lessen the law's delays; 5. Adequate state budget system; 6. The retention by the state, county or the city of the fee of a public franchise; 7. Non-partisan election officials; 8. Women's suffrage; 9. Broader legislative power with regard to social questions, compensation, child labor, factory laws, etc.; 10. Extension of the municipal debt limit.

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[1] Contributed by Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

Norfolk's Growing Independence.—Norfolk, Virginia, having been for many years in the grasp of a skillfully organized machine, is now enjoying, according to Lieut. C. P. Shaw, the satisfaction of having dethroned her boss and broken the political shackles in which she has so long been bound.

In the municipal election of 1912, the total vote cast was a little less than 5,000; the machine candidate for mayor being elected over the good government candidate by a majority of 212. Thanks to the active efforts of the non-partisan Citizens' Party and of the Welfare League, the total vote cast at the election of 1913 was 40 per cent greater than that of the election of 1912, and the Citizens' Party elected five out of its eight candidates, including both members of the legislature.

In the spring election of 1914, while the vote was only about 20 per cent greater than that of November, 1913, the Citizens' Party elected its candidate for the board of control, and in three wards of the city, where there was a real contest, elected all of its candidates for the council; in one ward the machine elected all four of its candidates, while in the remaining ward, the vote was so evenly divided that the citizens' Party and the machine each elected one member of the board of aldermen and one member of the common council.

In other words, the Citizens' Party won 14 out of 20 seats, or 70 per cent. In the next election, Lieut. Shaw writes, it is extremely probable that this same ratio of 70 per cent for the Citizens' Party as against 30 per cent for the machine will continue, and the redemption of the city from machine rule will be complete.

⁂

Political Opposition to the Dayton Charter.—Petitions are in circulation for a change in the city manager charter. Those who are moving in this direction are politicians representing the Democratic and Republican organizations, although neither of these is officially behind the effort. The Socialists are personally and officially backing the movement. One of the active supporters of the present form of government writes: "I think there is no question about our success in defeating their plan, but it will mean a campaign of defense. This will be a good thing from an educational standpoint."

⁂

Civic Activities of the Oberlin College Civic Club.—This club undertook an unique investigation, the new primary law in Ohio affording them the opportunity. Those familiar with the workings of the primary system realize at once the need of getting the numerous candidates and their views before the people, especially when as high as thirteen candidates run for the one office of sheriff, as was the case this past summer in Lorain County, Ohio. The club, under the guidance of Professor K. F. Geiser of the political science department, attempted to meet this need and it is generally felt that they succeeded in no mean way. In fact this biennial investigation has given a new turn to Lorain County politics and candidates with questionable records have been taught to think twice before placing their names before the voter.

The Oberlin club, a member of the Intercollegiate Civic Division of the National Municipal League is the only college organization in the country attempting such a work. Other colleges have considered it but have always come in conflict with the politicians and as a result the work has been abandoned. The investigations covered eight to ten weeks, the candidates being interviewed and hundreds of references secured. The results obtained were not the opinions of the men making the investigation, but the prevailing opinion of all the people talked to. Every statement made in the reports were backed up by evidence in black and white. So the plan, though novel, seems to be a step in the right direction for cleaner and more efficient local government.

⁂

Chicago's Mayoralty Primary Campaign.—The Chicago mayoralty primary campaign developed many interesting features, not the least of which was the utilization of moving pictures by Mayor Harrison, who was a candidate for renomination. His managers had a film made entitled "A Day with Carter H. Harrison, Our Present and Next Mayor," which was shown at the local theatres. This film took the mayor through the day from the time he left his home in the morning to his return at night for retirement. It showed him making tours of inspection of the work accomplished during his administration and at his desk in the city hall receiving visitors and transacting business. In commenting on this phase of his campaign the mayor said: "The new campaign methods have arrived. I am getting to be an expert in leading grand marches. Tomorrow night I am to lead three of them at three different balls. The new method brings the candidate right in touch with everybody instead of being confined to platform utterances in rooms thick with tobacco smoke as in the old times. The candidate's campaign is interwoven with social affairs that enable him to meet people who never mixed in politics a few years ago. It is one result of the ballot for women, and I must say that I much prefer the new methods to the old."

A fusion effort was made by the Republicans and Progressives to nominate and elect Hon. Harry Olson, president judge of the municipal court, to the mayoralty. The movement was interesting not only because of the high character of the candidate, but because it represented an effort on the part of the Republicans and Progressives to get together in local politics. Judge Olson received large support at the hands of the women, but not in sufficient numbers to ensure his choice, William B. Thompson, the choice of the old Lorimer organization, was nominated over him. R. E. Sweitzer, the present city clerk, defeated Mayor Harrison for the Democratic nomination.

The vote of women was interesting. Harrison made a direct bid for it.

	Men	Women	Total
Sweitzer.....	124,868	57,666	182,534
Harrison....	68,776	36,207	104,983

Two Democratic candidates for aldermen owe their nomination to the votes of the women, which tends to prove, according to the Chicago correspondent of the *Ledger* (Philadelphia), that the majority of the women vote as do the majority of the men. That is in the support of candidates who have been classed by reform organizations as undesirable. The same authority is responsible for the statement that, Alderman ("Hinky Dink") Kenna received the support of 1,204 women, while his only rival had 98. "Charley" Martin received 1,816, while 1,338 were cast for the candidate who was supported by the reformers. Forty per cent of the vote cast for "Smooth Ed" Cullerton in the 11th was by women, while only 25 per cent was given his opponent.

"'Barney' Grogan, saloonkeeper, whose license was revoked by the mayor on the day before the primary, because of charges that the saloon was a disorderly place, polled 1,453 women's votes, and his closest competitor, a team owner, backed by the city administration, polled 827.

"In the 27th ward an ex-saloonkeeper offered an exception to the rule. The women's vote for him was 794, against 1,017 cast for the second man on the list.

"Until this campaign, 'Hinky Dink' and 'Bathhouse John,' overlords of the levee district, always have fought in the front of the Harrison column. Yesterday they were 'neutral.' The result was that Harrison got 1,098 votes, while Sweitzer rolled up 6,107.

"Signs of 'opening up' of the town were noted Tuesday.

"The women polled 77 per cent of their registration, compared with 70 per cent for the men."

A sidelight on the situation is afforded by the following letter from a member of the National Municipal League:

"I am disappointed in the results. I have no grief for Carter Harrison. He has played fast and loose both with civic virtue and with civic vice until no one had any confidence in his sincerity. As to Mr. Sweitzer, he will undoubtedly be elected. He is, so far as general public opinion is concerned, rather an unknown quantity.

He has been county clerk and seems to be a very popular man. His affiliations are with the Sullivan democracy. On the Republican side, Mr. Thompson, the nominee, I have known from boyhood. He has been affiliated with the Lorimer element in the past and while he is personally popular, is no better fitted for public office than any other good sport. In brief, I may say about the elections that times are hard, that unemployment is general and that consequently the purchasable vote is large, also that both nominees spent a barrel of money in their campaign. Perhaps this tells the whole story."

The above is from a Republican in national politics.

The following is from a leading Progressive who supported Olson: "You can readily see that the good citizens are in a dilemma. There has not been a mayoralty campaign within a generation which has been so uninspiring so far as the decent citizen is concerned. There was talk until recently of Charles E. Merriam running as an independent, but his closest friends advised him not to get in the race because it would be a distinct sacrifice and would remove him from his seat in the council after the new mayor goes in. It is conceded that in these reactionary times Merriam could not possibly be elected mayor next month, although in all probability he would run second to Sweitzer, with Thompson trailing him a bad third."

⁂

The Minneapolis Council and Administrative Efficiency.—Two more Socialists have been elected to the Minneapolis board of aldermen, making four in a total of 26. One of them is said to be a high class man. The new council will, in the words of a correspondent, "be a liquor council, the same as the present one, and will contain not more than two or three men of good capacity. Probably it will be safe on franchises, but I should not want to guarantee anything at this time." This same correspondent thinks that constructive work in the way of efficiency and economy in administration will continue. "We are now pretty well committed," he says, "to this combination in Minneapolis, and I do not think we will lose any ground. There really has been a quite remarkable advance along these lines in the last few years. The Civic and Commerce Association through its research bureau and its practical aid in securing legislation has been of great benefit to us. Mr. Staley is doing some very effective work in this line."

⁂

The Color Line in Kansas City, Kansas.—In the great migration from Mississippi about 1877, a large number of negroes landed in steamboats in old Wyandotte, now a part of Kansas City, Kansas, and from here a good many went to nearby towns of Kansas. The result has been that we have a large negro population, and while they are making very rapid progress in the way of education and in a lesser degree in thrift and morality, as a whole they are not regarded as desirable.

Practically all of them are Republicans in politics. Until recent years the Republican party was the dominant party in Kansas City and Wyandotte County. In the early days there were enough negro votes to hold the balance of power in the primaries. Through this method they forced Republican officeholders to appoint negro deputies in nearly all offices, and county and municipal appointive jobs, such as policemen, firemen and others, had a large percentage of negroes. For instance, the deputy county or prosecuting attorney in the old days was generally a negro. There was generally a negro deputy in the register of deeds' and district clerk's office, and always at least one deputy sheriff. On the police force probably 10 to 15 per cent were negroes. While in the grade schools whites and blacks were segregated, in the high school they occupied the same rooms, and at the time of the separation there were about ninety negroes in the high school.

Our population has quite rapidly increased in the past fifteen or twenty years. Practically all of the additions to the population were whites. Now the great preponderance of votes in the Republican party is made up of white voters so the negroes have lost their power.

On account of the number of negroes in political positions a good deal of bitterness grew up on the part of the whites, and there was always a good deal of friction on account of the mixing of negro children with the white children in the high school, especially where boys and girls occupied the same study hall as they did in our high school. About the year 1905 a negro high school student killed a white high school student. This resulted in obtaining authority from the legislature to maintain separate high schools. An agitation also arose for excluding the negroes from the police force and other county offices. When the commission form of government was adopted here and Mayor Porter, a Democrat, elected, all negroes were dropped from the police force. Mayor Green has continued the same policy. We have made no change in the number of negro firemen employed, they having one company. No negroes are now employed as deputies in the court house.

The population is largely white. With the rigid enforcement of the prohibition law, a great many of the shiftless negroes, who were always in evidence about election time, drifted to Missouri where, with saloons, quarters were a little more congenial.

A well known local correspondent writes:

"The prevailing sentiment endorses the attitude that is taken both by the city and county administration. The negroes naturally feel that they are being unjustly deprived of their rights. I do not see how any one can meet the force of their argument. They have in the past, however, been favored probably out of proportion to not exactly numbers, but to their economic value in the community.

"At the present time they have organized a movement and Nat Singletary is running for mayor. He is a man of some ability as a money lender and politician. His candidacy is regarded generally more as a joke than anything else, it being claimed on the part of some that he is induced to keep in the race to assist one of the other candidates. My judgment is that he will receive a fair percentage of negro votes, but not a majority."

⁂

The San Francisco Mayoralty.—Eugene Schmitz, removed from office in 1907 while the graft prosecutions were in progress, has announced that he would be a candidate for the fourth term as mayor. Commenting on this situation the San Diego *Union* has this to say editorially under the heading, "Why Not Beelzebub?"

> Whatever else may be said about Eugene Schmitz, ignominiously removed from his position as mayor of San Francisco during the graft prosecutions, it must be conceded that for pure effrontery he has not a peer in all America. Returned to San Francisco from the east last Monday and greeted by a crowd with the very appropriate adjunct of a brass band, Mr. Schmitz announced his purpose to run for mayor next year, and added:
>
> "For three times while I was mayor, San Francisco had prosperity. The people want the good old times, and I am coming back to you to be your mayor again and be the same kind of mayor that I was in the good old days. I will ask for election in the interests of justice."
>
> The nature of those "good old times," which led to Mr. Schmitz being numerously indicted, was very fully disclosed during the graft prosecutions of 1907. Possibly San Franciscans desire a return of that kind of municipal bliss. In that event they will have an opportunity to obtain their wish. Mr. Schmitz will nominate himself as a candidate for mayor. Beelzebub has the same privilege under the direct primary law.

⁂

Prussian Three-Class System.—So much criticism has been directed in recent times against the Prussian three-class system of voting that reformers were beginning to hope that an abandonment of the obnoxious principle might be looked for within a reasonable time. The fear of social democratic majorities on city councils has, however, so far always operated to defeat proposed changes, and now we read that the three-class system is to be substituted for the equal votes system in the province of Schleswig-Holstein. This province at present enjoys a separate municipal code in which the three-class system is not contained, but owing to the increasingly industrial character of the urban population the government finds itself confronted with the possibility of social democratic councils. The only remedy for this in the opinion of German writers seems to lie in the introduction of the much criticised three-class system.

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Votes for Women in Germany.—The legislature of the Grand Duchy Sachsen-Weimar-Eisenach has enacted that in municipal elections independent women shall be entitled to participate directly in the elections on the basis of their income.

III. JUDICIAL DECISIONS

Burial Lots and Special Assessments.—In *People ex rel Stubblefield vs. Bloomington Cemetery Association*[1] the supreme court of Illinois held that land within a cemetery being a burial lot of a family is not subject to special assessment for the construction of a city sewer levied against the cemetery itself. This ruling ought certainly to make for repose, and will, at any rate, eliminate a great deal of bookkeeping.

*

Control of Streets and Highways.—The supreme court of Illinois, in *Martins vs. Brody*,[2] in considering the respective spheres of authority of the state and municipality in a public street running through the city, found that while the authority of the state had been delegated to the municipality, such delegation of control was for the benefit of the citizens of the whole state, and that any discrimination as to use of the street operating against the people of the state in general and in favor of those of the municipality itself was invalid.

*

Formalities in Ordering Improvements.—In *City of Monett vs. Fowler*[3] the Missouri court of appeals had before it the question as to what extent a city is entitled to proceed informally in the construction of improvements. In this case the improvements had been made by city officials without the authority of an ordinance authorizing them. The court held that an ordinance or other proceeding having the effect of an ordinance is essential, and that a tax bill for improvements made without the formality of such procedure is void.

*

Discounts by Gas Companies.—The system frequently adopted by gas and light companies of offering a rebate for prompt payment of charges was disapproved by the supreme court of California in *Economy Gas Company vs. City of Los Angeles*.[1] The city of Los Angeles has an ordinance fixing the rates to be charged by the gas company and prohibiting the collection of any other or different rate by means of any rebate, discount or other device. The court held this ordinance valid and conclusive in the matter and that no rebate for prompt payment could, therefore, be granted.

*

Lien for Improvements: Collateral Attack.—The time within which and the persons by whom liens imposed for street improvements may be attacked is an important one, particularly in those cities issuing bonds to pay for such improvements. The court of appeals of Kentucky has recently held in *Town of Russell vs. White*[2] that where the proper municipal authorities have accepted the work done under a contract and no proof is adduced that they were guilty of fraud or mistake in so doing the lien for such improvements cannot be questioned on the ground that the improvements do not comply with the contract. This is undoubtedly a sound conclusion and one which is necessary to proper financing of such improvements.

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[1] 107 N. W. R. 143.

[2] 160 N. E. R. 266.

[3] 170 S. W. R. 684.

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[1] 143 P. R. 717.

[2] 170 S. W. R. 609.

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Meeting of Town Board Outside the Town.—The New York town laws make a requirement that at least two annual meetings of the town board be held at the office of the town clerk, and provide for special meetings to be called on two days' notice, giving the time and place of such meeting. The New York supreme court in *People ex rel Shields vs. Watkins*[1] held that while other meetings than the annual meetings need not be held at the office of the town clerk, yet in the absence of special authorization by statute, such meetings must be held within the town, and that accordingly a meeting of the board held outside the town was illegal and business transacted thereat of no effect.

⁂

Employment of Help by Town Officials.—The New York supreme court, in *Daly vs. Haight*,[2] limited rather strictly the extent to which town officers may go in employing help to do the work usually performed by elective officials. In this case plaintiff had been employed to act as janitor and as assistant in the office of the town clerk, it developing that his duties consisted chiefly in keeping the town clerk's office clean. The court held that payment for such services by the supervisor was unlawful, and that the supervisor and the person employed were liable for the amount of the payments, since no town officer has a right to employ help to do the work of his office, nor has the town board the right to employ such person at the expense of the town in the absence of regular legislative authority.

⁂

Franchise Rights and Taxation.—Any doubt there may have been in New Jersey as to the right to tax public utility franchises should be dissipated by the decision of the court of errors and appeals in *Public Service Gas Company vs. Board of Public Utility Commissioners, et al.*[1] The court found that in making a valuation of the property of the plaintiff for the purpose of establishing a basis for the regulation of rates to be paid to it by the public, it was error to assign no value or a nominal value only to a franchise held by it, when such franchise has in fact a substantial value as shown by the total market value of its securities. The court accordingly makes it necessary to take into consideration a franchise in fixing rates. There should accordingly be no question that such a franchise for ordinary taxation purposes should likewise be taken into consideration.

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City Liability for Work Done by Contract.—The supreme court of Oregon, in *Carruthers vs. Astoria* [2] found that to render a city liable for a neglect of duty by a contractor in carrying out his contract, it must be shown that it was impossible for the contractor to do the work otherwise than in the manner followed. The court in this case practically holds the city liable for its specifications and the necessary results of doing work according to them, but relieves the city of liability in any case where the work under the specifications might have been safely done.

In *City of Jonesborough vs. Hemingway* [3] the supreme court of Arkansas had before it a somewhat similar question. In that case the plaintiff had done certain grading at a stipulated price per cubic yard. The city allowed citizens to have dirt removed from their property on paying the contract price. Under the direction of the city engineer the plaintiff, without any arrangement with a certain property owner, placed dirt on his property, thinking, of course, that the property owner would pay for it. There being no privity of contract between plaintiff and the property owner, and the contractor being unable to recover from him, the court held that he was entitled to recover compensation from the city.

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[1] 149 N. Y. S. 1006.

[2] 149 N. Y. S. 940.

[1] 92 A. R. 606.

[2] 143 P. R. 1106.

[3] 170 S. W. R. 82.

Cutting Shade Trees: Municipal Responsibility.—A conflict of authority between city officials and owners of private property as to the right of the officials to cut and trim trees projecting over the sidewalks or growing in front of property, is often a warm one. The South Carolina law provides that the town commissioners shall keep the streets, including the sidewalks, in proper repair and gives them discretion as to what shall be deemed proper repair. In *Munday vs. Town of Newton*[1] the supreme court of that state held that in case the board of aldermen proceeded in good faith in trimming trees along streets and sidewalks and in cutting down shade trees along the sidewalks in front of plaintiff's property, they could not be interfered with or corrected by the courts, nor could damages be awarded against them; that the courts were only entitled to interfere in cases of fraud or oppression on the part of the authorities.

⁂

Basis for Rate-Making.—The Massachusetts public service commission, in a long and carefully considered decision recently handed down, treated comprehensively the very difficult question of the proper basis on which a public utility is entitled to ask a fair return. The commission found that the reproduction cost so often and so strenuously urged as a basis for rate-making, while illuminating in many ways and while often the best method of checking up unsatisfactory accounting, particularly in connection with depreciation, cannot be depended on as a fundamental controlling principle. It uses as an illustration cases where companies by means of excessive rates have accumulated large amounts for capital expenditures, and holds that to base the rate on the reproduction cost theory would require the ratepayer to pay a rate that would provide a return, not only on the capital furnished by the investor, but also to furnish additional capital and a return thereon. The commission makes the point also that the rule works both ways; that is, that basing the rate on the reproduction cost would be equally unfair to the investor in that if the first years of a company were unprofitable and the plant depreciated the rate allowed would not permit the loss to be made up.

The commission lays down as the real principle to be followed in making rates that regulation should take as its guiding rule the protection of investments honestly and prudently made and wisely managed, and holds that any other theory than this principle of investment would be found to be utterly inconsistent with the law of the State of Massachusetts.

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Municipal Water Rights.—The question to what extent, if at all, the rights of a municipality in water used by it for municipal purposes differs from the rights of an individual is sometimes before the courts. In *Stevens vs. City of Worcester*[1] the supreme judicial court of Massachusetts found the plaintiff entitled to recover for damages sustained, by reason of the city, which owned land along a stream, diverting the water, in which the plaintiff had riparian rights, to his injury. The court held that in the absence of specific authorization by law for the diversion, or in the absence of a showing that the plaintiff had parted with his rights to defendant, the plaintiff was entitled to the full protection claimed.

The supreme court of appeals of Virginia, in *Davis vs. Harrisonburg*[2] found, however, that under the laws of Virginia where a town owns and operates an electric light plant and uses water power in doing so, the fact of damages being caused thereby to a lower riparian mill owner by the lessening of his available water flow on account of the city's impounding the water during the dry season, does not entitle such riparian owner to damages, provided, of course, the use made by the city of the stream flow was reasonably adapted to the normal capacity of the stream.

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[1] 83 S. E. R. 695.

[1] 106 N. E. R. 587.

[2] 83 S. E. R. 401.

An Important Billboard Decision of the Supreme Court of Illinois.—*Billboards in Chicago.*—With an unwillingness which seems fatuous, to submit to any restriction upon their activities in the light of what resistance is coming to imply, the billboard interests have for the third time within two years brought upon themselves the heavy blow of an adverse supreme court decision. The famous Missouri case was hardly made known before a similar case and a similar decision occurred in Wisconsin.

Now comes the sweeping advance in the possibility of reasonable billboard restraint involved in the opinion of the supreme court of Illinois, delivered by Chief Justice Vickers in the case of the *Thomas Cusack Company vs. the City of Chicago.* In the opinion of Everett L. Millard, the able lawyer who as chairman of the municipal art committee of the City Club of Chicago conducted the campaign and argued the case, this opinion "clearly enables the city to absolutely prohibit billboards in residence districts, as a frontage consent is merely a waiver of the right to prohibit."

The case came before the supreme court on an appeal by the city of Chicago from the decision of Judge Foell in the court below, in which the ordinance in question was declared unconstitutional and its enforcement perpetually enjoined. The supreme court reversed Judge Foell, remanded the case, and directed the dismissal of the injunction granted the Cusack company "for want of equity." While a rehearing will be asked, it is unlikely that it will be granted.

The crux of the case was in the validity of Section 707 of Chicago's municipal code, which under the heading "frontage consents required," provided that billboards should not be erected "in any block on any public street in which one-half of the buildings on both sides of the street are used for residence purposes without first obtaining the consent, in writing" of those controlling a majority of the frontage of the property in the block.

After having disregarded this law for some time, the billboard men, with the fine delicacy that generally distinguishes them, erected a great board at a point on Sheridan Road cutting off the view of several miles of lake frontage. This brought action, forced upon the city's building department, and then the injunction followed, against which the city appealed to the supreme court.

The fight in support of Section 707 was that it was neither discriminatory or unconstitutional, as alleged, and that "billboards are dangerous to the public health, safety, morals and comfort"; that they afford protection to disorderly persons, create nuisances and increase the danger of fires. No aesthetic considerations were urged; but in support of the above contentions evidence was offered to prove that in residence districts less fire and less police protection were provided, while the rubbish accumulations back of the billboards increased the danger both from fire and of criminal assaults. Testimony was brought forward to show that the lights on the front of some of the billboards made the space in the rear "even darker than it would have been if there were no lights at all. . . . Physicians testified that deposits found behind billboards breed disease germs, which may be carried and scattered in the dust by the wind and by flies and other insects."

To the answer that other structures might create similar conditions, the court replied by quoting from the decision in the Missouri case (*Gunning vs. St. Louis*, 239 Mo. 99) thus: "While that is possible yet it is not probable. . . . Buildings and fences are erected for the purpose of enclosing grounds . . . and common experience teaches us that they are effectual for that purpose, which is inconsistent with the idea that they promote and harbor nuisances, as billboards do."

The principle that the section was reasonable and proper in its protection of residence districts is strongly affirmed, and it is interesting to note that one authority cited is that of a previous Chicago case in which the decision was loudly heralded as favoring the billboard men. A clear distinction is noted as comparing with a general restriction of billboards, or a restriction upon esthetic grounds, as in the case of *Haller vs. Training School*, 249 Ill. 436.

The reasonableness of the foot-frontage requirement, within certain limits, is further affirmed by reference to a livery stable case (*Chicago vs. Stratton*, 162 Ill. 494), a dram-shop case (*Swift vs. People*, 162 Ill. 534), and to a garage case (*People vs. Ericsson*, 263 Ill. 368).

The right of the city to add to its municipal code such a section as that in question is confirmed, in the opinion of Justice Vickers, by specific and general statutes of Illinois.

Thus, for another time, the refuge of the constitution is denied to those who seek its protection that they may harm, annoy and endanger many for the benefit of a few. The decision is especially encouraging as pointing the way in other states for the enactment of state laws permitting regulation and of local ordinances giving an option at least to residence districts, against the insolence of billboard extensions.[1]

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[1] From J. Horace McFarland, president, American Civic Association.

IV. MISCELLANEOUS

State Municipal Leagues.—The fourth annual meeting of the *Ohio Municipal League*,[1] held in Columbus, February 11 and 12, was transformed into a general state tax conference as the financial situation is the most pressing problem confronting the municipalities of Ohio.[2] The executive board feeling that the financial problem was a general one and that the interests of municipalities in the question are similar to and not conflicting with, the interests of other groups of the population, invited not only the usual delegates from municipalities but also representatives from all organizations interested in the question of taxation and in the financial needs of the state, the schools, the counties, townships, cities and villages.

The paper on "The Financial Condition of Cities," by Stewart L. Tatum, consulting solicitor of Springfield, was a review of the findings of the special committee for the investigation of finances of municipalities, appointed last summer by Governor Cox, upon the authorization of the legislature and following the recommendation of the Ohio Municipal League. Mr. Tatum was chairman of the committee. The recommendations of the committee are summarized as follows: (1) that the state abandon its policy of resorting to the general property tax for a portion of its revenue; (2) that the state retain as its proper revenue the so-called corporation taxes now levied by it notwithstanding the demand from certain quarters that part of these taxes be apportioned to municipalities; (3) that existing provisions of law relating to apportionment of liquor revenues be not changed; (4) that the state surrender to municipalities such portion of its automobile fees as may be deemed equitable; (5) that all sinking fund levies be placed outside the ten mill limitation of the "Smith one per cent law" thus separating them from general purpose levies; (6) that the preceding recommendation be extended to effect the entire exclusion of sinking fund levies from the operation of the Smith one per cent law and that debt restrictions be confined solely to the power to incur debts and not at all to the power to levy taxes for their payment; (7) that a constitutional amendment be again proposed for the exemption from taxation of bonds of the state and its political subdivisions; (8) that municipalities be authorized to borrow from their special funds upon certificates of indebtedness issued in anticipation of the collection of taxes. The conference approved these recommendations. It also proposed a general constitutional amendment to revise the system of taxation in the state. The most important feature in the proposed amendment is the provision which would in effect abolish the present uniform rule and permit the classification of property for the purpose of taxation.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. iii, p. 405.

[2] See S. Gale Lowrie's article, *supra* p. 254.

Committees of the league have been appointed to promote the adoption of the proposed amendment by the people and to secure the adoption by the legislature of the changes proposed by the committee on municipal finances.

Mayor E. G. Martin of Norwalk was elected president of the league for the ensuing year, and F. W. Coker of Ohio State University was re-elected secretary-treasurer.

The field of operation of the *League of Pacific Northwest Municipalities*[1] is the states of Oregon, Washington and Idaho. The object of its existence is to supply to the new and rapidly growing cities of the Pacific Northwest the means of an enlightened co-operation for municipal progress. This league, though a tri-state organization, is not a federation of state leagues within its territory nor a rival of any of them. So far from regarding state leagues as its rivals, it considers them in the words of its secretary "as much-needed complements of its own work and as indispensable co-laborers in a broad field of opportunity. It was at a session of the second annual conference of the league held at Portland in 1913 that the Oregon League of Municipalities was launched and given its first impetus."

This league differs from the state leagues of Oregon and Washington, to quote Professor Russell again, "first, in that the former ignores artificial, state lines and aims at effecting concerted effort among the municipalities within a natural boundary line and within a territory the needs of whose cities, from an economic and industrial standpoint, are related and similar. Second, membership in the league is not, as in the state leagues, confined to municipalities alone. The membership consists (a) of towns and cities, (b) of civic and commercial organizations, and (c) of individuals. Third, though striving in the same territory for municipal betterment, the tri-state and the state leagues put emphasis upon different means and agencies in achieving their common object. The state organizations have been emphasizing the opportunities of the cities of a single state to co-operate for procuring good legislation in all matters affecting municipal corporations. They formulate and support legislative programs which are deemed by the leagues to be in harmony with the interests of the municipalities within a commonwealth. The northwest league, on the other hand, devotes but little attention to the matter of general legislation, believing that the state leagues are in a better position for this work. The two principal agencies through which it seeks to achieve its object and upon which it places great emphasis are: The (a) annual conference, and (b) its bureau of municipal reference and research.

The league held its third annual conference in Seattle, November 10, 11, 14, 1914. The dominant features of the meeting may be summarized as follows: Reports upon the work of the state leagues were made by their respective secretaries. Borrowing from the California league the "roll-call of municipalities," the conference listened to reports of municipal progress in the various cities represented. Five sessions were devoted to the presentation of affirmative and negative arguments on the question of municipal ownership of public utilities. The League's municipal budget exhibit and pictorial display, occupying a favorable location in the most active part of the city, presented a comparison of the municipal finances of the four principal cities of the northwest—Seattle, Portland, Spokane and Tacoma. The exhibit was something entirely new in the northwest and, in its comparative feature comprehending the budgets of four large cities, new perhaps in the entire country. It consisted of 70 colored charts and pictures varying in size from 6 to 36 square feet and occupying about 1,500 square feet of the wall space. This feature, credit for which is due to Associate Professor Ralph E. George, head of the department of Economics and Business in Whitman College, was most successful.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 111; vol. iii, p. 164.

At the business session of the league, C. M. Fassett, a commissioner of Spokane, was elected president, and John H. Russell, Ph. D., head of the department of political science at Whitman College, secretary.

The fifth annual convention of the *League of Washington Municipalities*,[1] met in Olympia January 25–27. Mayor Mottman of Olympia, who welcomed the delegates, disparaged the policy of "Let posterity pay the bills," and advocated strongly a policy of "pay as you go." Comparing municipal affairs with his own private business, he declared that if the financial methods existing in the government of some of our cities were applied to his private business he would find himself bankrupt within a few years. "Why should not a city be just as free as any private or corporate business to apply surplus revenues in one department to the payment of temporary deficits in another department, just as any well-managed private business would do? Separate departmental funds in municipal finance should exist only for bookkeeping purposes. Is it not absurd for a city to have surplus money comparatively idle in one of its funds, while some other department which may happen to be temporarily short must pay interest on borrowed money at a rate much higher than the interest earned by its surplus deposits in banks?"

The league is fortunate in having for its headquarters the Bureau of Municipal Research at the state university of Washington. In this way it secures without expense to itself all the advantages of a permanent, non-partisan headquarters, in charge of trained workers, and with extensive collections of municipal information already existing on the shelves of the bureau and the various university libraries. The chief of the bureau, Dr. Herman A. Brauer is secretary and treasurer of the league, and municipal editor of its official paper, the *Pacific Builder and Engineer*. The university benefits by the inspiration and practical outlook which comes from close touch and personal co-operation with city officials all over the state.

Howard A. Hansen, assistant corporation counsel of Seattle was re-elected president and Dr. Brauer, secretary.

Alabama Municipal League.—The plan of uniting cities and towns into a league to secure better and more efficient government is now recognized as a necessity in order to meet the complex problems of modern communities. With the growth of our cities and towns new and difficult problems arise, some of them of an experimental nature calling for technical or professional skill in a variety of fields. There are questions of health and sanitation, of traffic and transportation, of street pavement, street cleaning, water supply, garbage and sewerage disposal, milk and food inspection, public works, public markets, public utilities, and public service rates; city planning, civic centers, parks, playgrounds, schools, art commissions, charities and corrections; questions of municipal organization and administration, taxation and assessment, finance, accounting methods, commission government, home rule, and many other subjects of municipal interest which sooner or later appear in the course of community growth.

Believing that these reasons are sound and compelling, the Alabama Municipal League has been organized with Commissioner James Wheatley, of Birmingham as president and Dean George Jacob Davis, Jr., of the faculty of the University of Alabama as secretary.

The *League of New Jersey Municipalities* has effected a temporary organization with Mayor Frederick W. Donnelly of Trenton as temporary chairman.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. iii, p. 164.

A meeting of the *League of Missouri Municipalities* was held at Sedalia in December for the purpose of considering the proposed legislation to be submitted to the present General Assembly. The matters of chief importance which were decided upon were: 1. The promotion of a bill for the submission to the people of the question of holding a constitutional convention for the revision of the state constitution; 2. The drafting of a bill enabling cities of the third class to adopt the city manager plan of government.

The League of Kansas Municipalities[1] has prepared a legislative program consisting of 26 bills which have been submitted to the present session of the legislature.

The Montana Municipal League which held its fourth conference at Great Falls, December 17–18, has published a synopsis of its proceedings. N. E. Entrikin of Livingston is secretary.

The proceedings of the first annual Convention of the *Illinois Municipal League*, which was held at the University of Illinois, October 14, 15 and 16, has been published as a University Bulletin. Prof. John A. Fairlie is secretary.

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The Austin Pageant.—Austin, Texas, will celebrate the opening of its new municipally-built dam across the Colorado river, in the week of April 26, with a pageant that an enthusiastic promoter has forecasted as "the most *municipal* pageant ever held." Pageants are sometimes mere series of tableaux; sometimes they are simply historical portrayals; sometimes they interpret the history of the country or of a section of the country; sometimes they are so "municipal" that they might apply with equal ease to any city; but the Austin pageant, as the master of the pageant has planned it, is to be symbolic of Austin, and, with the history of that particular city as a background, will interpret that particular city as a prudent administrator of community needs.

Austin was rising into state-wide prominence as an inland pleasure resort when a flood of true Texas porportions swept away the old granite dam that formerly constrained the Colorado, and formed Lake Austin. For several years Lake Austin has been nothing more than a name. The completion of the new dam, after several years of municipal effort, marks the achievement of the city in creating again for itself its water reservoir, its source of electric light and power, and its pleasure spot and playground. It is this achievement that the pageant celebrates. The site, a natural amphitheater facing the spillway and overlooking the lake and dam, was selected in preference to a rival site overlooking the state capitol because of a desire to emphasize the city as a constructive municipality rather than as an objective state capital. In the historic treatment, the chief figure will be Stephen F. Austin, who conceived and founded the city, and who, beside being a sturdy pioneer and conqueror of the wilderness, possessed an unusual conception of the problem of future city growth and exercised sagacious foresight over the development of his newly opened land.

In the preparation of the pageant the city has received the hearty co-operation of the University of Texas. The preliminary historical research and the publicity campaign have been undertaken in large part by and through the university, and Professor Frank LeFevre Reed has composed the pageant music. William Chauncy Langdon is master of the pageant.[1]

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Workmen's Compensation for Firemen and Policemen.—The Industrial Accident Board of Massachusetts has ruled that the firemen and policemen are entitled under the provisions of the workmen's compensation act to compensation for injuries sustained during the performance of their duties. It affects every fireman and policeman in every city of the state that has accepted the provisions of the act. The decision is based on a New Bedford case.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 164.

[1] From Edward T. Paxton, Bureau of Municipal Research and Reference, University of Texas.

Public Defender.—The subject of the appointment of a public defender is up for consideration in Kansas City, Missouri, and in Portland, Oregon. In this connection it is interesting to note that the committee of the New York County Lawyers' Association on courts of criminal procedure has prepared majority and minority reports on the subject. Information concerning these reports can be had of Dr. C. C. Williamson, Municipal Reference Librarian, Municipal Building, New York.

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The Relation of the City to Its Food Supply. — The National Municipal League's Committee on this subject, consisting of Clyde Lyndon King, chairman, University of Pennsylvania; Arthur J. Anderson, editor, *Pennsylvania Farmer*, H. B. Fullerton, agriculturist, Long Island Railroad Company; Cyrus C. Miller, formerly president, Borough of the Bronx, New York; Paul Work, Cornell University, presented an elaborate report to the Baltimore meeting of the League. This report is now being published and information concerning it can be had on application to the National Municipal League, 703, North American Building, Philadelphia.

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Commercialized Vice in Wisconsin.—The Wisconsin legislative committee that has been investigating the question of commercialized vice has filed a report which is one of the most drastic in its recommendations thus far made.

The committee recommends:

That a morals court be established in cities of the first class with exclusive jurisdiction over all cases involving moral offenses.

That a law similar to the Mann act, applicable between cities, villages and towns of the state, be enacted.

That police departments be required to record all written complaints, with a report of their findings thereon, with a view to centering responsibility.

That a permanent state police department be established with power to investigate immoral practices, the reason for unenforcement of law in all communities and power to enforce the law where local officers fail to do it.

That local communities organize private associations to assist officers in the enforcement of such laws.

That in the trial of misdemeanors when a jury is called the verdict of five-sixths of the jurors shall be sufficient to convict or acquit.

That the sale of liquor be prohibited within or in connection with dance halls.

That a liquor license may be automatically revoked upon a plea of guilty or conviction or upon nolo contender for violation of any of the moral laws.

That family entrances and private wine rooms be prohibited in saloons, and that no connection be had between them and any other rooms above or contiguous to the saloons.

That a government liquor tax holder must also take out a local license.

That the license be issued to the floor, lot and block of the premises where liquor is to be sold.

That public dance halls procure license, such dances to be supervised by a policewoman or other competent officer.

That the pass system used in many dance halls be forbidden by law.

That all hotels, rooming and lodging houses be required to obtain licenses; that they keep permanent registers of the names of all guests, to be signed in their own handwriting, the registers to show the hour of assignment of rooms and their surrender, with penalty for using fictitious names.

That the publicity of ownership be established by requiring the names of owners on the front of all hotels and rooming houses.

That women be on the board of managers of all institutions in which women or children are committed.

That police women be appointed in every city of the first, second or third class.

That the age of consent be raised from 14 and 18 years to 18 and 21 years.

That the industrial home for women be established, to be equipped with hospital facilities for treatment of diseases, women convicted of immorality to be committed thereto for treatment and training.

That in cities of the first three classes special classes for subnormal children be established in the public schools, and that, where necessary, the state furnish free text-books, meals and clothing to needy children to make compulsory education effective.

That social neighborhood centers be developed in connection with the school system.

That municipalities provide supervised amusements, particularly concerts, moving picture shows, etc.

That employers of domestic servants be required to furnish them with suitable rooms in which to receive company.

That the number of hours of labor for domestic servants be fixed by law.

That the rights of the laboring class be protected.

Adequate insurance against poverty.

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Plan to Replan Belgium.—The International Garden Cities and Town Planning Association, founded in England last year with Ebenezer Howard as president, proposes to begin now to formulate plans for the rebuilding of the Belgian towns and villages which have been destroyed during the war. It will begin by seeking to interest Belgians now in England in the English garden villages and suburbs. For this purpose it proposes to hold lectures, organize and exhibit and open an atelier for architects. Later it hopes to study actual conditions in Belgium, prepare a proper civic survey and secure adequate legislation for carrying out the ideas set forth. Those who wish to obtain further information or to contribute may do so through Ewart G. Culpin, Secretary, 3 Gray's Inn Place, London, W. C., England.

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The Intercollegiate Civic Division.—The Intercollegiate Civic League, after ten years' activity, has been reorganized as a division of the National Municipal League with William C. Chadbourne, Harvard, 1900, as chairman, and Wayne D. Heydecker, Columbia, 1911, as secretary. This move is, in the language of the official statement sent out by the secretary of the division, "an attempt to increase the efficiency of the clubs concerned by co-operation with a larger organization, at the same time retaining the advantages of undergraduate initiative." The annual meeting of the division will be held in New York City and Washington, April 8 and 9. Arrangements have been made for the entertainment of the delegates at Columbia University for an afternoon session, for a dinner and for a day in Washington. As heretofore the discussion of municipal problems will be a leading feature of the meeting and of the various clubs. The discussion of international relations will also be taken up in co-operation with the International Association for the Promotion of International Conciliation.

The members of the Executive Committee are as follows: Charles A. Beard, DePauw, '98; Richard S. Childs, Yale, '04; R. Bayard Cutting, Harvard, '97; R. Doncaster, Penn State, '15; Lewis Greenberg, C. C. N. Y., '15; James Ireland, N. Y. Law, '15; Edward M. Sait, Toronto, '02; R. J. Swenson, U. of Minn. '15; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Pennsylvania, '89.

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High School Prize Competition.—The National Municipal League has offered two prizes of $30 and $20 for the best two essays on "Fire Prevention," by high school pupils. The subject of the essay was chosen to direct the attention of the contestants to the actual administration of a municipal function and to elicit an expression of opinion as to the way that function is discharged or should be discharged. W. E. Longley, state fire marshal, of Indiana, has announced that he will give to the student of an Indiana high school who wins either one of the prizes, a prize of $25. If Indiana pupils should win both the first and second prizes offered by the National Municipal League, the student winning the first prize will get $15 additional, and the student winning the second prize $10 additional. This means that an Indiana student winning the first prize will receive at least $45 and if the second prize did not come to Indiana, $55. The winner of the second prize will receive at least $30, and if the first prize did not come to Indiana, $45. The state fire marshal invites students who are interested in the contest to write to his office for a bibliography of the material in the state library. The department will welcome the opportunity to aid any pupil who enters this contest.

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Street Cleaning and Sanitation Division of the Cleveland Junior Order Civic League.—Believing that every boy should receive instruction in the organization and practical workings of his own city government, G. H. Hanna, the Cleveland superintendent of street cleaning has adopted a very practical and effective method of providing such instruction. In co-operation with the principals of public schools in congested districts he is organizing the pupils of the seventh and eighth grades into junior order civic leagues, each school having its own league. Ten of these leagues have been organized; about twenty more will be organized in the near future. Each league is entirely independent of any other, there being no central organization or union but each league co-operates directly with the street cleaning department.

To organize a league Mr. Hanna arranges with the principal of the school for a meeting with the boys. He explains the organization and functions of the department, and emphasizes the value of clean streets and yards and the ill effects suffered by the people of the city when the streets and yards are not cleaned. He enthusiastically reminds the boys that they are to become responsible for the conditions of their city and urges them to begin helping now by co-operating with the department to make Cleveland clean and beautiful. He then suggests that they organize for this purpose and elect officers similar to the regular city officers and outlines the method of organization.

The school district is divided into ten districts by the principal of the school. At a later meeting the boys form a league by electing from their number a director of public service, a commissioner of street cleaning, a deputy commissioner of street cleaning and for each of the ten districts one district superintendent and one district inspector.

The city department provides a badge for each officer and gives him a copy of the ordinances and regulations of the city governing the functions and powers of that department. Each district superintendent is responsible for the condition of the streets in his district, and each district inspector for the yards. When either notes a condition contrary to the ordinances or regulations of the city he requests the property owner, or person concerned to alter the condition. If he refuses, the district officer reports such condition and refusal to the commissioner of street cleaning and the latter officer interviews the offending person. If he fails, the director of public service endeavors to take care of the matter. In case of his failure a written report is made on blanks furnished by the city department and dropped in a locked box placed in the lobby of the school for that purpose. The city inspector of that district collects these reports each day and proper complaints are immediately followed up by the department with the aid of the boys making the report. The offender is given just four hours to clean up. The work of the boys is thus given official backing. Volunteer aid certificates are provided by the department for the officers of the organization. These are held by the principal of the school until the end of the school year and are given to boys who have served faithfully as such officers. Should any boy elected to office fail to perform his duties he may be removed and his office filled at a called election.

At the close of the school year a premium will be given to the most efficient officer of the city. A premium will also be given to the school whose district has been kept in the best condition. It is also planned to have the leagues participate in a big annual parade.

By the organization of these leagues the superintendent of street cleaning hopes to accomplish three things: First: Secure cleaner streets and yards through the co-operation of the school children. Second: Teach the boys the organization and functions of the street cleaning department. Third: Awaken and foster a civic interest and pride among school children.[1]

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The Ohio Equity Association.—For many years the publication known as *Equity* has given attention to the initiative, referendum, recall, proportional representation, and sundry similar movements. As a result the word "equity" has come to have a certain meaning with the public and this has led to its abuse. Sometime ago we saw references to an "Ohio Equity Association," and inquiries were at once instituted to ascertain its status. We found that the association in question had fathered the opposition to the Green labor compensation law passed by the Ohio legislature in 1913. We are now informed that this association never had any tangible status, that little was known of the personnel of its leadership and that there was no open membership. The name appears to have been adopted as a sort of dummy by the interests opposed to labor legislation and taxation reform.

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Municipal Publications: New and Old.—For some years the Bureau of Municipal Research has been sending out occasional pamphlets, leaflets and posters which have given interesting information concerning current accounting and budgetary events and the results of investigations. From now on these items, reports and articles will be published in monthly form on a regular subscription basis under the title, *Municipal Research*, the purpose of which, according to the announcement, is to serve as an intelligent fact medium in a plan of co-operation between citizens and officers for the improvement of the public service. The January number contains a brief statement of the various policies and methods and a formal report entitled "Next Steps in the Development of Budget Procedure for the City of Greater New York." The February number contains a study of the city budget. Among the topics to be treated in future numbers are, "The City as an Employer," and "The City as a Purchaser."

Social Hygiene is the quarterly to be published by the American Social Hygiene Association. The first issue contains important definitive papers on the scope and problems of the movement, considering them from educational, racial and legal standpoints. The sections headed library and law notes have decided reference value. Under the first mentioned head are published short articles on the literature of the movement and reviews, in fact such information on the subject of social hygiene as appears in the department of PUBLICATIONS of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, dealing with municipal questions. Under law notes appears a resume of the legislation considered and enacted in 1914 by the several states.

Kansas Municipalities is the title of a monthly review of municipal progress and problems just issued. It is the official organ of the League of Kansas Municipalities. The editor is Charles Homer Talbot of the University of Kansas, who is secretary of the League and in charge of the municipal reference bureau of the university.

The account for the quarter very nearly balances because *The City of Denver*, which has been published for a number of years by the municipality of Denver was discontinued at the close of 1914 because of the failure of the commissioners to appropriate the expenses involved. This action was taken because of the necessity for economy.

The bi-monthly publication, *Public Affairs*, published by the Civic League of St. Louis has been temporarily discontinued on account of difficulties in financing it this year. In its place brief reports will be issued from time to time.

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[1] Prepared by The Municipal Reference Library of Cleveland.

Mrs. R. H. Ashbaugh, president of the Michigan Federation of Women's Clubs, has been appointed a member of the Detroit Recreation Commission by Mayor Max of that city.

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Farnham Yardley, a long-time member of the National Municipal League, has been elected mayor of West Orange, N. J.

❖

Charles D. Mahaffie has been serving as secretary of the Oregon Conservation Commission, of which Joseph N. Teal, for many years a member of the League, is chairman. The 1914 report of the commission has just been presented to the governor of the state.

❖

Professor Charles A. Beard, of Columbia University, has been appointed the director of the training school carried on in conjunction with the New York Bureau of Municipal Research.

❖

Arthur M. Swanson, chief examiner of the Civil Service Commission of the city of Philadelphia, won the position of chief examiner of the Chicago Commission in an open contest. He has declined the appointment, however, preferring to stay in Philadelphia.

❖

Nelson S. Spencer has been elected president of the New York City Club. For many years Mr. Spencer has been actively identified with municipal affairs in New York, has been a director and counsel of the Municipal Arts Society, a director of the National Civil Service Reform League and a member of the National Municipal League. He succeeds Charles H. Strong who was president for five years.

❖

Frederick L. Siddons, former commissioner of the District of Columbia and twice a member of the Council of the National Municipal League, has been made associate justice of the district supreme court of the District of Columbia. A long-time resident of Washington, D. C., has been appointed district commissioner to succeed him.

❖

Samuel H. Ordway, for many years a prominent member of the Council of the National Civil Service Reform League, has been appointed a member of the State Civil Service Commission of New York by Governor Whitman. His colleagues will be Col. William G. Rice of Albany, and W. D. McKinstry of Watertown. The latter was a civil service commissioner under Governor Flower. Mr. Ordway will be chairman of the commission.

❖

Miss Adelaide R. Hasse. Dr. Charles C. Williamson having been appointed librarian of the municipal reference library of the New York public library, the executive committee of the board of trustees has voted to consolidate the documents and economics divisions under Miss Adelaide R. Hasse as chief.

❖

Rev. Walter S. Pond who has been the priest-in-charge of Holy Trinity and St. Philips Mission Churches in Chicago has been appointed by the Bishop of Chicago as dean of the Episcopal Cathedral in that city to succeed Bishop Sumner. Dean Pond has the same deep interest in civic and social work as his predecessor, which is most gratifying.

❖

Howard F. Morse has been elected director of the Cincinnati Bureau of Municipal Research to succeed Rufus E. Miles. Mr. Morse made a survey of the sewage system of Cincinnati during the Hunt administration.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLICATIONS

I. BOOK REVIEWS

PRACTICAL TOWN PLANNING. By J. S. Nettlefold. London: St. Catherine Press. 2 shillings net.

In this book there is much theory, for it deals with the future; but the theory is constantly supported by evidence drawn from experience; the personal experience of the author who for many years has been one of the most influential leaders in housing reform in Birmingham, of all English cities perhaps the one that has actually accomplished the most. The most heartfelt criticism of the book will come from practical men, men whose methods it discusses. The greatest volume of criticism will possibly come from those students of housing—for to Mr. Nettlefold as to most Englishmen the purpose of town planning is to improve housing—who look for royal roads, who wish to be told that if some broad and general policy is adopted housing problems will solve themselves.

The book is not easy reading. It is a storehouse of fact and opinion from which other and more popular writers are sure to draw freely. Statements of policy or principle are commented upon from every point of view and supported or declared wanting on the basis of evidence from many sources. It is easy to base an argument upon one statistic, or even upon many statistics from one city. For no matter how large or old or cosmopolitan the city its evidence is necessarily one-sided. It is much more difficult to base—or to follow—an argument on statistics furnished by many cities, as Mr. Nettlefold does. To illustrate, he sets himself the task of reaching a conclusion on the vexed question of tax reform. English experience with the rating system—taxing real estate not on its capital value, but on the income it produces—has been so unhappy in some respects that English housing reformers have been known to jump to the conclusion that taxing on capital value—the American system—would go a long way, if not the whole way toward solving their problem of land overcrowding. Their argument is similar to that of our single taxers who wish us to put the whole burden on the land. They point to large undeveloped areas held out of use, because producing no income they bear no tax burden, until pressure of population forces their selling value up to exorbitant figures. With only English experience, *i. e.*, negative experience, as a guide, their belief in a capital tax seems justified. Mr. Nettlefold, while sharing this belief, examines its promises in the light of experience in cities that have tried taxation on capital value. He finds that in Paris the builder, in order to make a profit, must erect many-storied tenements instead of the English single family houses. So too in Berlin. So he goes a step further and advocates that the building be separated from the land and each taxed separately—as is done in New York, our most tenemented city.

Apparently then levying a capital tax and a heavier tax on land will, by itself, make land overcrowding worse. So he goes on and proposes that having levied the tax on the capital value of the land the government shall at the same time limit the permissible building density on that land. So we are caught between the two horns of a dilemma: Is it worse to have undeveloped areas, open spaces, in and around a city, due to the fact that the land bears a low tax or none at all and the owner consequently has little beside interest charges and perhaps special assessments to meet, or is it better to have the city built up to the limit, with pressure constantly exerted to increase the limit, because the tax burden forces the owner to utilize his land as quickly and as thoroughly as possible? In both cases, practical experience shows, it is necessary for the government to set a limit to building density, once building has begun.

Again he takes up the question of the effect of type of dwelling upon rent. There is the constant argument of a certain kind of real estate developer that if he is permitted to overcrowd his land, pack his houses so close together that light and air can reach their windows only with difficulty, if he is permitted to stack family above family in tall tenements so that one lot will support the dwellings of an army, economy will be achieved and rents will be lowered. Testimony is produced from Brussels, Paris and Berlin. From it all he reaches two conclusions:

"1. Vital points like the restriction of building density and the consequent regulation of land values should be settled by general legislation and not left to be settled by administration.

"2. Fewer houses per acre means lower land values and lower house rents."

Though the chapter headings give an inadequate idea of the contents, they will perhaps give as clear an impression of the author's argument as could be framed. They are: Adequate access to cheap land, site values, the preparation of town planning schemes, savings, examples, delay and its causes, the need for further legislation and better administration, town planning and city extension, slum reform—incentives to landlords. All these are, of course, written with English conditions in mind; but the statement of principles, the argument, the examples quoted, are of general application.

The book is written by a man who believes in the use of new methods designed to secure higher standards of housing than are now to be found in the cities of either the new world or the old, but a man who has had long practical experience, who has subjected many of his proposals to the test of actual use, who believes in evolution rather than revolution, who accepts no plan that does not seem to him economically sound. To give even a superficial view of all his proposals would mean to write another book. The best that can be done is to quote his own summary:

The policy and methods enunciated in the foregoing chapters may be very briefly summarized as follows:

1. Open up cheap land for building and other purposes by means of new roads and improved waterways.

2. Protect it from excessive rises in value by forbidding land sweating.

3. Protect the ratepayers against exorbitant prices for land required for public purposes by making price, not purpose, the governing factor in state or municipal land purchase.

4. Lease land (not sell it) to the workers for housing, allotments and small holdings at a price to cover cost plus a small margin of safety.

5. Reform the rating system so as to relieve industry and put a reasonable charge on those who allow land to lie idle.

6. Repeal antiquated legislation such as mortmain and entail.

7. Put town planning administration in good hands, and not in the charge of men who have axes of their own to grind, or too many friends in land-jobbing circles.

8. Appoint a strong central authority, not steeped in the old methods, but fully conversant with town planning on modern lines, armed with sufficient powers, and endowed with the necessary courage to reject bad schemes.

9. Give this central authority an adequate staff to cope with the work and compel local authorities to attend to their business instead of neglecting it.

John Ihlder.

New York.

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Carrying out the City Plan. By Flavel Shurtleff, in collaboration with Frederick Law Olmstead. New York: Survey Associates. $2.00.

"The practical application of American law in the execution of city plans" is the sub-title of this timely and invaluable volume. Its introduction begins thus: "The reason for preparing this book is the astonishing variation in the practical efficiency of methods actually employed and prescribed by law or legal custom in different parts of the United States in acquiring land for public purposes, in distributing the cost of public improvements, and in other proceedings essential to the proper shaping of our growing cities to the needs of their inhabitants. . . . There has been evident in most cities very limited acquaintance with conditions and methods to be found elsewhere."

Then follow chapters on the public ownership and acquisition of land, on the cost distribution of land acquisitions; on that much-needed facility of communal equity, excess condemnation; on the use of the police power and the work of administrative agencies in executing a city plan. Each chapter summarizes existing legal relations, and presents "conclusions" which may be accepted as of most definite value for quick consultation.

The appendices give the text of the American laws. and decisions discussed, and a summary of English and continental systems of taking land for public purposes. A well-made index adds further to the value of this timely book.

This is not the place to discuss any of the conclusions arrived at in "Carrying out the City Plan." It is the place to express appreciation for the comprehensive and broad-minded survey which Mr. Shurtleff has carried out, and to say that the volume is indispensable alike to the city official and to the constructive citizen interested in better city making. It does for cities, as far as it goes, what the department of agriculture has long done for the rural population in this land on which city-dwellers are either neglected or penalized by the government. It seems altogether unfair and almost shameful that it should have been necessary for private agencies thus to do an indispensable service to the forty-six per cent of our population living in cities, while a vast federal department, with millions of money, is telling the farmer and the fruit-grower how to cook vegetables and how to pack apples! The census department counts a man's neckties and the income-tax reaches after a percentage on his shoe polish; but nowhere as yet has the government arranged to obtain, file, compile, summarize and publish in a way accessible to those needing such information in administrative work the laws, decisions and practices which relate to city economics. Trainloads of innocent paper are governmentally printed upon with congressional "guff," for free transportation through the mails on the way to the junk-dealer, while self-sacrificing men must do such work as has here been done by Mr. Shurtleff for the public welfare!

But this is a most admirable book.

J. Horace McFarland.

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The History of Montreal from 1535 to 1914. By William H. Atherton, Ph.D. In three volumes. Montreal: S. J. Clark Publishing Co. $25.

Dr. William H. Atherton for many years has been one of the leaders in civic improvement in Montreal and as such has become deeply interested in all that relates to the history as well as the welfare of his adopted city. We are indebted to Frederick Wright of the *Canadian Municipal Journal* for the following interesting account of this truly monumental work of Dr. Atherton:

Although much has been written of Canada, it was not until Dr. Atherton wrote this history of Montreal that any attempt has been made to write on the "grand scale" the history of a city. At first sight it hardly seems possible that any one city could be found in Canada from which sufficient data is to be had to fill three big volumes, and yet Dr. Atherton in his work has packed every page with events, the mere record of which would make interesting reading, but to those who know something of the intricacies and pulsations underlying a cosmopolitan city life, with all its ramifications of human endeavor this big result of some years' labor will be their encyclopedia, as well as their constant reference book because each epoch, each decade and each movement is not only put into chronological order, but so treated that one sees life depicted instead of dead matter chronicled in the pages.

To the municipal mind the great value of the work lies in the fact that the author is essentially a municipal man, as well as a man of literary talent, and it was for this reason that the publishers chose Dr. Atherton "to prepare a history of Montreal from a new point of view and one that is particularly interesting in the present city planning era."

His sociological studies and his experience in city improvement as secretary of the local organization, has specially fitted him to write a city history from the municipal student's point of view, though the human interest which permeates the work will appeal to a larger group of readers. But the point we would make is, that Dr. Atherton, in these volumes, while interesting and even gripping the average reader is at the same time educating him to a better appreciation of things municipal—that is at their best.

The first volume, which deals with Montreal under the French regime, while carefully classifying the great events which led up to the conquest, the annals of any one of which will bring the mind of the reader to the stirring times of pioneer Canada, brings out all the characteristics of those who came over with Cartier, Champlain and Maisonneuve, and the other great French colonizers who saw in the new colony the aggrandisement of their beloved France.

The second volume, which deals with the development of Montreal since the conquest, though not so romantic in its setting, is probably more interesting than the first to those who would know more of its later growth, because it gives the inception, the foundation, and the history of every movement and every institution that has helped in the building up of its communal life—religion, education, finance, transportation, art and literature; each in their turn are treated minutely and intelligently. The treatment given to the municipal government is in itself worth reproducing in every publication in Canada as giving a complete study of a city which in its four hundred years' existence has gone through every known form of government. The author not only records the many systems under which Montreal has been governed, but gives, in language to be understood, his criticisms of the influence of each on successive generations. This chapter is made particularly interesting at the present moment of unrest in the city council of Montreal, for the conclusion gives five theories of civic government, given by so many different factions. A very interesting point that the author has brought out is the record of the capitulation of the city in 1775 to the Americans who were in possession for seven months, during which time it was rated as a congressional district.

Throughout his history, Dr. Atherton has had a difficult and somewhat delicate task, as he had to deal with a dual city, in race, language and religion, each race proud of its own history, and each race at times unseemingly distrustful of the other; the same with language and religion. Montreal's dualism is as sharply divided as its main street divides the east from the west.

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MARKETS FOR THE PEOPLE. By J. W. Sullivan. New York: Macmillan Company, 1913.

338.1 S95

This volume is primarily devoted to an illuminating discussion of the advantages to be gained (1) from ambulant street vending, free to all comers, limited only in range by necessary health laws and regulations necessary for through traffic, (2) from some semi-weekly or tri-weekly open-air markets free to all venders either of foodstuffs or manufactured articles, whether for household or personal use, and (3) from the fullest development of existing public markets through the use of all modern methods, such as auctioneers, licensing of the market commission men, sale by sample order from producers, thus encouraging the attendance of local producers.

The data have been gleaned from a study of markets while on the continent for more than a year as labor investigator for the commission on public utilities of the National Civic Federation; and again, in 1909, while Mr. Sullivan toured many countries in Europe with Mr. Gompers of the American Federation of Labor. During the following years, when the author was assistant editor with Mr. Gompers, the stream of printed matter flowing through editorial offices was studied and, finally, the author went again to Europe in 1912 for the special purpose of visiting markets in leading European cities not theretofore visited.

The author is convinced that "a twenty per cent saving to the consumer of moderate means, and in cases much more, on stock of equal quality, in particular on fruits and vegetables, through pushcart dealers is possible as against store retailers." He cites convincing evidence as to the practicability and value of open-air markets, as shown in metropolitan cities of Europe, and alleges that selling in the open by pushcart "regulates all forms of indoor retailing (and) establishes a solid basis for the conditions of the foodstuffs trade, with consequently stable and unmanipulated retail prices."

The book seems to have been called forth particularly in order to point out the limitations of the wholesale terminal plan as advocated by the Mayor's Market Commission of New York City, as the leading essential factor needed to lower food costs. Some of the author's objections to a modern, wholesale terminal market are that the subway and tunnel will bring the greatest changes in history in local passenger transit, and accompanying this may be an epochal change in the distribution of produce by freight. He believes, too, that it would be impossible to attract New York's scattered wholesale business, or force it by legislation, into a centralized wholesale market.

The volume is particularly valuable as an antidote to those who believe that there is no proper place for the open-air market and the vender. The solution of this problem requires exact data as to the real danger to health through contamination of meats and vegetables and other foodstuffs through dust and flies, and whether, after all, this danger is any greater in an open-air market or in a pushcart than in a closed market. On this point the author submits no data.

The real trouble with the marketing policies of American cities is that there has been no policy. If cities are to gain the greatest good to their citizens from curbstone markets, it is clear that limitations as to what can be sold by curbstone markets cannot be determined by the whim or personal choice of some retailer who chances to be in the vicinity of the market. Thus, as a rule, it is fairly easy to get retail merchants with general merchandise for sale to request a curbstone market in front of their stores with the proviso that those markets shall be limited to foodstuffs, and shall in no sense sell general merchandise. Markets allowing the sale of goods other than foodstuffs can easily find a place with councilmanic sanction if they will help out the sales of these retailers. It is clear, however, that the curbstone market, to be asuccess, must be as open to all lines of foodstuffs, wares and merchandise as are European markets. A vigilant municipal policy, moreover, could assure the city's residents that the quality of foodstuffs sold by venders was reasonably up to standard, and due vigilance on the part of housewives and bureaus of weights and measures could give like assurance that there is no greater danger from the vender than from the petty retailer. Our municipal policies have been "pussy-foot" policies and have failed primarily because there has been slight opposition from existing interests.

Clyde Lyndon King.
University of Pennsylvania.

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Public Policies as to Municipal Utilities. Philadelphia Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. January, 1915.

The January number of the *Annals* is devoted entirely to the proceedings of the conference of American mayors, held in Philadelphia, November 12–14, 1914.[1] This conference focused its thought on the public utilities question with the result that all phases of this perplexing problem were seen more clearly than ever before. In addition to the addresses of the mayors themselves, the members heard some of the leading specialists of the country in their master rôles. The volume as a whole is in consequence a comprehensive symposium on public service regulation and management.

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[1] See N. M. R., vol. iv., p. 91.

The change in public sentiment, with respect to state public service commissions is impressed on the reader. In the *Annals* volume dealing with the regulation of public utilities issued in 1908, the writers were hopeful that the newly organized state public service commissions would give municipalities effectual relief from unjust and mismanaged public service corporations. At that time the corporations were not inclined to favor state regulation. In the volume before us a positive lack of popular faith in state public service commissions is clearly in evidence. The public service corporations, on the other hand, are now strongly in favor of state regulation as opposed to municipal regulation. Some of the experts are friendly to municipal regulation, and most of the mayors who expressed themselves on the topics considered municipal regulation preferable to state regulation, but the prevailing trend of thought of the confernce was toward municipal ownership and operation. Some regard regulation as only a preliminary step toward complete control.

Among the many notable papers in the volume the following may be mentioned as of special significance:

1. "Fundamental Planks in a Public Utility Platform" by Delos F. Wilcox. Dr. Wilcox discusses in his usual clear and forceful manner three questions, namely:

a. Should public utility investments be speculative or non-speculative?

b. Should public utilities be exploited for the benefit of the taxpayers or should they be operated on the theory of rendering service at cost?

c. Should the cities, *now*, take all possible steps to prepare the way for ultimate municipal ownership?

He makes a strong plea for ultimate municipal ownership.

2. "Interlocking Directorates" by Louis D. Brandeis. This paper, which has already received wide publicity through the press, sets forth the baneful effects of interrelated corporate management as found in some of our municipalities.

3. "What Certain Cities Have Accomplished without State Regulation" by Stiles P. Jones. Mr. Jones has made an exhaustive study of the work of state public service commissions and has come to the conclusion that municipalities are better off without than with state regulation. He cites several instances of cities handling successfully their own public service problems.

4. "What Regulation Must Accomplish if It Is to be Permanent," by John M. Eshleman. This masterly paper deals with the fundamentals of regulation. The permanence of regulation may well be doubted if the standards set by the paper must be reached.

5. "Municipal Ownership—The Testimony of Foreign Experience," by Frederic C. Howe. Dr. Howe is an enthusiastic advocate of municipal ownership, and is abundantly supplied with facts to support his theories. American cities may well profit by the European examples cited in this paper.

As both sides of debatable questions were presented to the conference the volume becomes a veritable storehouse of theory and fact relating to public utilities problems.

The conference took noteworthy action in endorsing the establishment of the Utilities Bureau, [1] a nation-wide inter-city agency for the collection and dissemination of information relative to public utilities throughout the country.

Horatio M. Pollock.

Albany, N. Y.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. iii, p. 751.

The Collectivist State in the Making. By Emil Davies. London: G. Bell & Sons.

Mr. Davies, who is chairman of the Railway Nationalization Society and has written extensively on the subject of railway nationalization, has given in this volume a very interesting and comprehensive statement of the growth of what he calls collectivism. He defines a "collectivist state" as a country in which "the land and the principal industries are owned by and operated on behalf of the whole community, any excess of revenue over expenditures being applied to the purposes of the community." From this point of view it will be seen that it is immaterial except as a matter of detail whether the community is a state or a municipality.

Mr. Davies says that his conclusions may be wrong, but "if collectivism is the failure that many people would have us believe, it is time some explanation was forthcoming to account for its extraordinary spread through the world," as pictured in the pages of our author's book, which is a revelation of the extent to which production for use and not profit has gone in Europe, in America and indeed all over the world. One does not realize until he examines a book like this how rapid has been the movement by which "every conceivable business from banking to bee-keeping" has been made a governmental function somewhere. Mr. Davies treats of the state or city as a producer of light and power, as the owner of workshops, as a manufacturer, as a contractor of public works, the owner of warehouses, cold storage depots, grain elevators, markets and abattoirs, as a retailer, as a tourist agency, as an owner of baths, spas, hotels and boarding houses, as the owner of theatres, picture galleries, libraries, museums, sport caterer, bookmaker and lottery owner, as banker, pawn broker, as educator, research student, doctor, as speculator, commercial traveller, advertising agent, publisher, undertaker and trustee, in fact touching the lives of the people at every point "from birth to death."

The Boys and Girls of Garden City. By Jean Dawson. New York: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.

It is not the famous Letchworth garden city that Miss Dawson treats of, nor yet the Long Island community of the same name, but an ideal community of children. Miss Dawson writes in her introduction: "The boys and girls of garden city are the children of a neighborhood who have banded themselves together through their mutual interest in the things about them that are worth while. . . . These children are playing a social game while developing themselves and helping one another to learn the rules of the game of life." The book illustrates the old theory that "play" may just as well have a point as not, and that it may engage the active minds of children for their benefit.

A certain somewhat wonderful Dr. Dunsmore is the inspiration and the general source of knowledge for the young folks who start a city, build a town hall, and do many and various things, from planting a garden to ridding a town of mosquitoes by contract, from correcting stoop shoulders to studying animal nutrition. It is excellently illustrated, and while perhaps lapsing into pure science somewhat too readily in the statements put into the mouths of children, it seems to have enough real "youngness" about it to be of service. Certainly any community would be distinctly bettered if the children of a half-dozen schools read these pages and tried these "games" of sanitation and proper living.

J. Horace McFarland.

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Municipal Accounting. By DeWitt Carl Eggleston. Ronald Accounting Series. New York: The Ronald Press Co. $4. 352.1 E3

City financial officers who are unfamiliar with the intricacies of municipal accounting should welcome any help upon the new and difficult problems attending their installation and operation. The few books and pamphlets available on the subject have been generally criticised as being too abstract for ready appreciation by other than accountants, and as insufficient in description of operating methods. Mr. Eggleston has well endeavored to modify this comment.

The presentation of material is concise and attractive—in tabular form wherever possible—permitting brief discussion of a wide range of subjects. Effort is made to give the intimate detail, even to the color of paper and possibilities of mechanical assistance connected with accrual accounting, budget making, debt procedure, purchase records, payrolls, judgments and mandamuses, stores control, expense analysis, unit costs, operation of the journal and general ledger, etc. There is a very commendable chapter on accounting for small cities, by use of which, with references to the preceding text, the city accountant will find valuable assistance in the perplexities which he encounters.

Much of the procedure is illustrated by forms, which are apparently meant to be suggestive only, as they carry little of the detail essential for ultimate use. Such practice is perhaps preferable to burdening the text with forms actually in operation, as the detail of forms from New York or Cincinnati is not applicable to all municipalities.

It is problematical how far a work of this character may be adversely criticised if it states the requirements of an adequate installation, but neglects certain of the actual problems of operation and closing of accounts. It is invaluable for the city accountant to know what step should be taken to secure an adequate control over city funds, and to enable him to render an account of his stewardship, based upon sound accounting principles.. But from such records reports must be extracted, accounts closed, and reopened for the ensuing fiscal period. The administrator is frequently confronted with the question: "What am I going to do next?" and it is unreasonable to expect an inevitable answer from a brief handbook. For example, the author outlines concisely the procedure for centralised purchasing. However, the tangible problems which will arise in a complete operation of this system will present obstacles to the public officer—the step by step procedure from the making of the requisition to the drawing of the warrant in payment for the goods; the methods of adjusting the stores account at the close of the fiscal year; purchases before the regular appropriation is passed; the proper treatment of emergency orders; the handling of interdepartmental transfers of stores; etc.

For a treatise of this character, a just measure of worth may be found not so much in such questions as in more general proposals: Is the discussion based upon principles which are universally true to procedure? Are statements of essential points clear and concise? Are unusual points brought out and treated? Are these really difficult situations handled masterfully, adhering to required rules of accounting? Can a person grasp the principles as stated, and apply the same? In a broader way the work complies with these tests, and the municipal accountant supplementing this text with material already available will find an appreciable help through some perplexing problems. The need now is for an authoritative detailed discussion of some of the peculiar accounting difficulties arising in smaller cities, in which the accounting officers are usually untrained.

LENT D. UPSON.

Dayton, Ohio.

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POLICE PRACTICE AND PROCEDURE. By Cornelius F. Cahalane. New York Police Department. 1914. $1.50.

"Police Practice and Procedure" is a text-book on police work which has been placed in the hands of each member of the New York police force by the police commissioner. It has been prepared by Inspector Cornelius F. Cahalane, director of the training school of the New York police department.

The introductory chapters of the book are devoted to the discipline, deportment and physical condition of police officers, pointing out the necessity for prompt obedience of orders, a proper attitude toward civilians and the maintenance of the body in a condition of maximum efficiency.

The chapter on "patrol" covers fully the definitions of patrol posts of various kinds and instructs the police officer in the care and use of firearms, the action to be taken at fires and the principles of first aid to the injured.

The chapters on "arrests" and on "evidence" contain not only an unusually clear exposition of the elements of the law on these subjects, but in addition contain many illustrations of the application of these principles to cases arising daily in the performance of police duty. The chapter on "criminal identification" describes clearly in non-technical language the portrait parle and the finger-print systems of identification.

The chapters which deal with crime classification, the methods of thieves and public morals are the most valuable in the book. In these chapters is contained not only the definition of each crime with which a police officer has to deal but also a vast fund of practical information regarding the manner in which each of these crimes is generally committed and words of advice to the police officer regarding the best method of procedure in each case.

The concluding chapters of the book are devoted to the enforcement of the liquor tax law, the preparation of reports and co-operation with other municipal authorities. The last chapter contains a particularly clear exposition of the distinction between ordinances having a penal sanction and ordinances carrying a civil penalty, which has been for so many years a baffling puzzle to police officers.

"Police Practice and Procedure" is the most valuable book that has yet appeared in this country for the education of police officers. Every citizen who is interested in municipal government or who desires to co-operate intelligently with the municipal authorities in the maintenance of order and decency and the protection of property should read this book. Every mayor who is seriously interested in increasing the efficiency of his police force, upon which the success of his administration depends to such a large extent, should see to it that each policeman in his city is supplied with a copy of this book. Every policeman or peace officer who seeks information, regarding the law and the ways of criminals with a view to increasing his efficiency as a policeman and with a view to securing advancement in rank should read and study this book carefully until he has mastered it. Its language is so simple that a child can understand it and its statements will be found unusually accurate.

Leonhard Felix Fuld.

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Municipal Charters: A Discussion of the Essentials of a City Charter with Forms or Models for Adoption. By Nathan Matthews, LL.D. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. $2.

352 M44

In this work the author has formulated the results of long study and practical experience in municipal affairs. The book deals with three important phases of municipal organization and function: *First,* the political machinery of the municipality; *second,* its administrative organization, and, *third,* the relation of the city to quasi-public works.

In the sections dealing with administrative organization, Mr. Matthews has done a real service in relegating to a secondary position mere questions of political organization, and in emphasizing as strongly as possible the importance of efficiency in administrative methods and machinery. In this respect, his discussion of the subject is in entire harmony with the recent trend of thought in municipal affairs.

In the discussion of political organization, the author divides the variously suggested plans of municipal organization into three classes: The council committee type, the responsible executive plan and the commission system. The first of these, which we inherited from Great Britain, he unhesitatingly condemns, and to this condemnation every student of municipal affairs will agree. Although he recognizes some of the distinct advantages of the commission type, there is evident throughout the book a tendency to place it in a position distinctly inferior to the form of organization which he deems best adapted to American conditions, namely the responsible executive type.

As regards the city-manager plan, which seems destined to work a profound change in our ideas of municipal organization, the author has little to say, beyond designating it as an experiment for which he shows comparatively little sympathy. He ignores some of the great advantages which this plan of organization offers, especially in favoring the development of a highly trained, professional, expert management of municipal affairs.

Whatever may be one's views of the direct primary, the initiative, referendum and recall, and other devices intended to secure greater democratic control over municipal affairs, one cannot help but read with considerable disappointment the author's discussion of these subjects. He has not only failed to grasp their true significance, but assigns to them a place in municipal affairs which they were never intended to occupy. In reading this portion of the work one has the feeling that he has constructed a flimsy edifice for the express purpose of demolishing it.

In a valuable appendix, Mr. Matthews presents draft charters of the responsible executive and commission types.

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WHERE THE PEOPLE RULE, OR THE INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM, DIRECT PRIMARY LAW AND THE RECALL IN USE IN THE STATE OF OREGON. By Gilbert L. Hedges. San Francisco: Bender-Moss Company.

353.9 H45

This is practically a law book giving the text of the various laws with interesting and suggestive comments. For instance, under the head of the recall there is the text of the bill and then a series of paragraphs setting forth the use of it in the various cities of Oregon where it has been invoked, to wit, in the cities of Portland, Salem and Medford, and in the counties of Klamath, Clackamas and Hood River. There is also a brief reference to the interpretation of the law by the courts. At the beginning of each chapter is a brief history of the law treated. The appendix contains sample ballots used at recall elections, sections of the Oregon code made applicable to the direct primary law, examples of newspaper recommendations on proposed measures and the constitution of Oregon.

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PROBLEMS OF COMMUNITY LIFE. By Seba Eldridge. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1 net. Postage 10 cents.

With New York City as the background and pervading influence, Mr. Eldridge has taken up sixty community problems and systematically analyzed them as studies in applied sociology. As our analyst points out much that finds a place in the outlines has little or no value as suggestion or criticism "being no more than enumeration of aspects of the subjects dealt with that merit some attention at the hands of students." What Mr. Eldridge has to offer under the head "Organization of the Municipal Government," which is a subtitle under the general subject of "Politics and Government in New York" is intended together with the other topics mentioned in the same general connection as a program for the better organization of reform activities in the city. While the treatment is intended for one city, it has a significance and value for the many.

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THE INDIVIDUAL DELINQUENT. By William Healy, A.B., M.D. Boston: Little, Brown & Company. $5.

"The Individual Delinquent," by Dr. William Healy of the psychopathic institute in the Chicago juvenile court, is an intimate and detailed study (of some 600 pages) of those young individuals whose misconduct is due not to social conditions but to abnormal mental, physical or emotional characters. It is a contribution to a body of knowledge comparatively small and little understood. It will be helpful to those interested in city problems chiefly as it shows the residuum of cases in our courts which are not susceptible to treatment through improved social conditions and the reconstruction of city life. Dr. Healy speaks with the authority of five years' research in the Chicago juvenile court and his telling analysis of hundreds of cases will bring home the same truths in other communities. The book is, of course, especially useful to all those engaged in dealing with children. It is written in any easy style, and for such a work is unusually devoid of technical refinements.

Roger N. Baldwin.

St. Louis.

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Safeguards for City Youth at Work and at Play. By Louise De Koven Bowen. New York: Macmillan Company. $1.50 net.

Mrs. Bowen, who has had active experience in charitable work in Chicago and is president of the Juvenile Protective League in that city, considers safety protection in recreation, legal protection in industry, legal protection for dependents, legal safeguards for all the dependent, protection against illegal discrimination, and the need of further protection. It is a most suggestive discussion of the preventive measures necessary to safeguard the children of the city.

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American Year Book, A Record of Events and Progress in 1914. Edited by Francis G. Wickware. New York and London: D. Appleton & Co. $3.

Hazell's Annual, 1915. Edited by T. A. Ingram. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney, Ltd. 3/6 net.

"The American Year Book" has become firmly established as a useful and convenient record of the year's events. Differing from other books of the same kind, it treats subjects topically. There are thirty-two sections, one of which is devoted to the subject of municipal government, contributed by the editor of the National Municipal Review. Under this head are considered: Municipal home rule, charter revision, government by city manager and commission, efficiency and research, municipal organizations, accounting, city planning, housing, fire prevention, police and nuisances. A bibliography concludes the section. Other departments of special interest to our readers are those dealing with city and county government, territories, dependencies, law and jurisprudence, public services, public resources, public works and educational organizations. A comprehensive chronology and necrology concludes the book. As usual the volume is admirably indexed.

"Hazell's Annual" is so well known as to need little more than a bare announcement. This year's volume contains the consideration of a number of new subjects. Naturally the interest in the "Great War" as it is called abroad, has led to a series of important and helpful articles giving in a concise form many much needed and often wanted facts. Another subject treated with care is that of aviation, which bulks so large in the current dispatches from abroad. The references to the government of London and to political and social movements are, as usual, numerous and well worked out. The list of organizations is remarkably full. A full index conveniently precedes the text.

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The Negro Year Book, 1914–15. Edited by Monroe N. Work. Tuskegee, Alabama: Negro Year Book Publishing Co. 25 cents. Postage 10 cents.

This is the third volume of this annual encyclopedia of the negro. The increase in size from 348 pages in the first issue to 448 pages in the present volume is an indication not only of the growth of negro interests but of the editorial resources. The volume contains a review of the progress of the negro in 1913, a series of chapters on the countries where black men govern, appropriate references to slavery and the civil status of the negro. Among other subjects discussed with more or less completeness are suffrage, miscegenation, soldiers, heroes, the church. The references to education, agriculture, population, health and fraternal organizations are particularly full and suggestive. A bibliography of newspapers, books and fugitive articles concludes the volume.

II. BOOKS RECEIVED.

AMERICAN SEWERAGE PRACTICE. Volume I. Design of Sewers. By Leonard Metcalf and Harrison P. Eddy. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. $5. Vol. II. Construction of Sewers. $4.

THE ANTHRACITE COAL COMBINATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES. By Eliot Jones, Ph.D. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. Harvard Economic Studies. $1.50.

BATTLING FOR SOCIAL BETTERMENT. Proceedings of the Southern Sociological Congress, Memphis, Tenn., May 6–10, 1914. Edited by James E. McCulloch. Nashville, Tenn.: Southern Sociological Congress. $2.

BOYHOOD AND LAWLESSNESS. THE NEGLECTED GIRL. By Ruth S. True. New York: Russell Sage Foundation. $2.

THE CANADIAN WOMAN'S ANNUAL AND SOCIAL SERVICE DIRECTORY. Edited by Emily P. Weaver, A. E. Weaver, E. C. Weaver. Toronto: McClelland, Goodchild & Stewart. $1.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT OF IDAHO. By C. E. Rowe. Boise, Idaho: Syms-York Co.

CONFERENCE ON THE QUESTION "SHALL A CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION BE CALLED IN INDIANA." Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University. 25 cents.

THE COST OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT IN MASSACHUSETTS. Seventh Annual Report on the Statistics of Municipal Finances, for City and Town Fiscal Years ending between November 30, 1912 and April 1, 1913. Boston: Bureau of Statistics. 1914.

DAYS AND WAYS IN OLD BOSTON. Edited by William S. Rossiter. Boston: R. H. Stearns & Co. 50 cents.

DEMOCRACY'S HIGH SCHOOL. By William D. Lewis. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 60 cents.

EUROPEAN POLICE SYSTEMS. By Raymond B. Fosdick. New York: The Century Company. $1.30.

THE FAILURE OF REGULATION. By Daniel W. Hoan. Chicago: Socialist Party of the United States. 25 cents.

THE FINANCES OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK. By Yin Ch'u Ma, Ph.D. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law. $2.50.

THE FUTURE OF WORLD PEACE. By Roger W. Babson. Boston: Babson's Statistical Organization, Inc. $1.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD, 1902–1914. New York: General Education Board, 61 Broadway. 1915.

GOVERNMENT AID TO HOME OWNING AND HOUSING OF WORKING PEOPLE IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Statistics. October 15, 1914.

JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN WATER WORKS ASSOCIATION. Proceedings Thirty-fourth Year. Baltimore: American Water Works Association. December, 1914.

LOWER LIVING COSTS IN CITIES. By Clyde Lyndon King. New York: D. Appleton & Company. $1.50.

MAKERS OF AMERICA—FRANKLIN, WASHINGTON, JEFFERSON, LINCOLN. By Emma Lilian Dana. New York: Immigrant Publication Society. 50 cents.

THE MIDDLE WEST. By Otto G. Cartwright. MOTHERS WHO MUST EARN. By Katharine Anthony. New York: Russell Sage Foundation. $2.

A MODEL HOUSING LAW. By Lawrence Veiller. New York: Survey Associates, Inc., Publishers for the Russell Sage Foundation. $2.

THE MODERN CITY AND ITS PROBLEMS. By Frederic C. Howe. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.

NATIONAL AND STATE INDEBTEDNESS AND FUNDS AND INVESTMENTS. 1870–1913. Prepared under the Supervision of John

Lee Coulter, Expert Special Agent in Charge of Wealth, Debt and Taxation. Washington: Bureau of the Census.

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III. REVIEWS OF REPORTS

Taxation Problems.[1] — *The Somers System of Realty Valuation.*[2] The recent revival of interest in the subject of tax reform, and the consequent attention devoted to systems and methods of attaining more equitable assessment and equalization, have resulted in especial prominence being given to those devices and so-called "systems" which have been developed either as aids to, or as substitutes for, trained judgment on the part of the assessing officials. For instance, as early as 1901 the Wisconsin tax commission had developed a "sales method" of equalization, the operation of which was comparatively unknown outside of the state for a number of years; but in the last five years the Wisconsin idea has been quite extensively copied. For a generation or more the assessors of New York City have been making some use of unit values and a scale of values for lots of varying depth, but the essential features of this system were not generally known or discussed until a few years ago. The particular adaptation of the unit method known as the Somers system was worked out by its inventor about 20 years ago, and was first used in St. Paul in 1896. But aside from his participation in Tom Johnson's "tax school" in 1901, Mr. Somers had little opportunity to test his system thoroughly until it was installed in Cleveland in 1910. He had then been in the service of the department of taxes and assessments of New York City for some time, although the distinctive features of his system were not there applied. His connection with former Mayor Johnson led the Cleveland board of assessors to investigate and adopt his system in that city.

The essentially distinctive feature of the Somers system is the method for the calculation of corner influence upon lot values, which is done by the use of a very complicated system of tables in which values are assigned to each 10-foot square in an area 100 feet square.[1] These tables and the formula by which they were obtained are carefully guarded as a trade secret, although it is claimed that they have been calculated upon a mathematical or scientific principle, and represent, therefore, a "scientific" method of ascertaining the value of corner lots. For the calculation of the value of inside lots a scale of values is used which differs but little from two other scales in use, viz., the Hoffman-Neil and the Lindsay-Bernard rules. All of these scales make use of the familiar frontage unit of value, although Mr. Somers has perhaps most clearly defined the frontage unit as being a strip of land one foot wide and one hundred feet deep.

One of the first accounts of his system written by Mr. Somers was an article on the assessment of city real estate, published in *Municipal Affairs*, June, 1901.[2] This article was reprinted, with some additional material on rural assessments, in St. Paul, 1901.[3] In these papers attention was given chiefly to the importance of obtaining the community's estimate of the relative frontage values. After these unit values have been agreed upon, the actual assessment process becomes a matter of mere arithmetic. In these earlier expositions of his method Mr. Somers is seen to decidedly better advantage than in his recent attempt to discuss the subject of value in the pages of this REVIEW.[4] This slippery subject should never be treated casually, and there is hardly any other portion of the field of economic theory in which greater care must be exercised in the use and meaning of words. Mr. Somers was both casual and careless in his discussion of the theory of value, and contributed in consequence only a confusion of contradictory concepts and ill-founded assertions as an introduction to his system of realty appraisal.

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[1] From H. L. Lutz, Oberlin College.

[2] The writer is indebted to the Manufacturers' appraisal company of Cleveland, Ohio, for the privilege of access to their file of clippings, and for copies of the material published by them.

[1] The Somers system was described by the present writer in the Quarterly Journal of Economics, vol. xxv, p. 172. November, 1910.

[2] The Valuation of City Real Estate, Municipal Affairs, vol. v, p. 401. June, 1901.

[3] The Valuation of Real Estate for the Purpose of Taxation, by W. A. Somers, St. Paul, 1901.

[4] The Valuation of Real Estate for Taxation, NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 230. April, 1913.

The principal agency in giving publicity to the Somers system has been the Manufacturers' appraisal company of Cleveland, which has acquired the rights of furnishing the service to assessors and others. This company has published a considerable quantity of descriptive and advertising matter and has begun the issue of a quarterly bulletin, the *Somers System News*. Of the descriptive literature, four pamphlets may be mentioned as indicating the scope of the service:

1. *The Somers Unit System of Realty Valuation*, 24 pp., no date. This pamphlet is purely descriptive of the system in general.

2. *Analysis of the Chicago Assessors' Plan of Computing Site Values and Comparison thereof with the Somers Unit System of Realty Valuation*, 29 pp., 1911. The Chicago method, which also employed a curve of value and a rough plan for figuring corner influence, was held to be too rigid and arbitrary, while it lacked in mathematical certainty and in devices for measuring overlap.

3. *Report on the Proposed Carnegie Avenue Extension*, Cleveland, Ohio, 35 pp., 1913. This report was made to the mayor at his request, upon the valuation of the lands and buildings required for the contemplated street improvement. The proposed extension was to be the first exercise, by the city of Cleveland, of its new power of excess condemnation.

4. *Prospectus of the New York Somers System Service*, 31 pp., 1914. This booklet was issued as a prospectus for the purpose of selling the service to real estate investors, brokers, bankers and others interested in land values. As an introduction to this new field, unit values on a certain block of streets were established with the advice of a committee of realty experts, and the valuation of the lots computed. Subscribers to the service were to receive these computations, and were to have the privilege of asking for a certain number of other computations in any part of the city.

Four numbers of the *Somers System News* have appeared. These bulletins are published ostensibly for the promotion of "equity in tax assessments of real property," but their actual purpose is to push the Somers method of attaining that end. Letters from officials and others in cities in which the service has been installed, addresses by officials of the Manufacturers' appraisal company, and detailed reports on sample appraisals which have been conducted in various places occupy the bulk of the space. From the last number, which was devoted to a review of the past year's work, we note that the service had then been installed in about thirty cities. The list includes seven cities in Texas, five in Ohio, seven in Arizona, with single cities in Louisiana, California, Oregon, Iowa and other states.

The attitude of the taxing officials who have made use of the service has been exceedingly favorable, and their testimonials are very enthusiastic. This reaction is not necessarily attributable to any unusual appreciation on their part of whatever scientific method or principle may be embodied in the Somers system. The improvement in assessments which any sort of system would afford, over the chaotic conditions which have so generally prevailed in local assessments, would be an equal source of rejoicing to local authorities. The enthusiasm of the southern press has been especially marked, and extensive campaigns for the adoption of the system have been conducted by the papers in several southern cities. This interest is explicable in the light of assessment conditions in the South. The Louisiana tax commission of 1908 asserted that startling injustice and inequality existed in the assessments of that state.[1] The tax commissioner of Texas stated in his latest report that the assessment of lands ranged from 35 per cent to 90 per cent of full value, and that under the present constitution it would be impossible to secure anything approaching a uniform assessment of property.[2] The average local taxing official is by nature uncritical, and would be little inclined to dissect the device which had relieved him of the onerous duty of assessment.

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[1] Report of Louisiana Tax Commission, 1908, p. 3.

[2] Report of Texas Tax Commissioner, 1913, p. 38.

The critical discussion of the Somers system has been participated in by a comparatively small number of individuals, and has centered chiefly around the question of the scientific character of the tables of corner influence. The term "scientific" has been used loosely by both sides. Mr. Somers and the officials of the Manufacturers' appraisal company insist that a mathematical rule has been developed for the construction of these tables, and they must, therefore, possess a scientific character. "There is a mathematical relation between the values of any two sites affected by the same street influences of accessibility."[1] But the vagueness of the term "mathematical" is troublesome. Is it merely a matter of simple arithmetic, or of the principle of proportion? Or does it run beyond these forms of mathematical science to the calculus and end in some terrifying formula of the higher mathematics? Granted that the relation of intersecting street values and the value of the corner lot be capable of mathematical expression in a given case, will this same mathematical relation hold with another set of values? Will it hold with all possible combinations of street and corner values, so that if the former are given the latter can always be found? If this relation changes as the street unit values change, is the degree of change reducible to law? For instance, does corner value increase as the square of the mean of the two intersecting unit values, or as their product, or in any definite relation to these two values? In the absence of any precise answer on these points the critics have been inclined to scoff at the scientific character of the tables. Mr. Pleydell declares that the mathematical rule is nothing more than the multiplication table.[2] Judge Sulzberger of Philadelphia was likewise inclined to discount the scientific character of the tables. In the course of the litigation which grew out of the attempt to introduce the Somers system in Philadelphia, he said:[1] "I have heard nothing to show that science has anything to do with this system, and as for expert opinion, it does not appear that the report furnished by the company, or to be furnished, is based on the opinion of any one possessing expert knowledge of the valuation of property in Philadelphia."

The judge is here stating the most important issue that can be raised between the advocates and the opponents of the Somers system of appraisal. Is it possible to construct a set of tables that will be universally applicable? Since these tables were prepared by a person whose experience was obtained in other places, could they be trusted to give satisfactory results in Philadelphia. And if there, then in other cities? Mr. Somers contends, of course, that he has considered and allowed for all disturbing factors to such an extent that his tables are perfectly general—given certain unit values on two intersecting streets and the corner will always be in the same mathematical relation to these unit values. This position will not be granted by some, who hold that such factors as the lot lines and the facts of ownership and use are entirely overlooked in such an assumption.[2] Even if Mr. Somers' thesis be granted, however, there has been no opportunity as yet for criticism of the particular corner tables which he has constructed because of the secrecy which has enveloped his method of calculation, and to a lesser extent, the tables themselves. The differences between the scales of value for inside lots that have been prepared by Mr. Somers and others suggest the possibility of similar discrepancies in their estimates of corner influence. We admit freely that Mr. Somers is quite within his rights in refusing to disclose his method, but we must also admit that others are quite as free to indulge in criticism of the system or of the results.

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[1] Somers System News, July, 1913.

[2] *E. g.*, in the debate with Mr. E. W. Doty at Yonkers, New York. Cf. The Yonkers Herald, March 2, 1913.

[1] Quoted in the Philadelphia Times, October 31, 1910.

[2] Cf. Remarks by Lawson Purdy, Buffalo Tax Conference, 1913. Proceedings National Tax Conference, 1913, pp. 281–283. Also, remarks of Messrs. Lindsay and Bernard, quoted in Kennan's Report on the Somers System, p. 26. See also, Real Estate and Its Taxation in Philadelphia, a series of questions and answers relating to a proposed system of assessment, published by the Mayor, 1913, p. 25.

A point of lesser importance was that raised by Mr. Pleydell at the Buffalo tax conference in 1913, as to the consistency of the corner influence tables. Specimens of these tables were shown in which certain 10-feet squares toward the inner part of the 100-feet zone of corner influence were given a higher value than other 10-feet squares closer to the street lines. It is hardly reasonable to suppose that these discrepancies were other than errors of computation or transcription, as the deliberate assignment of a higher value to a square farther from corner influence than to one closer to that influence is contrary to the central principle of the whole system. The percentage of error in the valuation of any lot which would be due to these differences would be negligible. If the whole principle of the universally applicable table for the calculation of corner value be valid, the minor discrepancies can be smoothed out. Upon this central point and not upon minor variations should the criticism be directed.

The most careful investigation of the actual operation of the Somers system that has been made by any qualified student of taxation is that by K. K. Kennan, the results of which are embodied in his report to the Merchants' and Manufacturers' association of Milwaukee, in 1911.[1] Mr. Kennan reported against the use of this system as an aid to the assessors, on the following grounds:

1. It had not worked satisfactorily in the cities in which it had been used.

2. The methods of the New York City department of taxes and assessments were available free of charge.

3. The results of the appraisal would be in no sense binding upon the assessors, who could not legally be forced to accept them. Should the assessors refuse, the city would have spent its money in vain.

There has been less tendency to criticise the results of the Somers appraisal in the more recent instances of its use than in Columbus and the other cities in which it was used three or four years ago. The Manufacturers' appraisal company has no doubt developed greater proficiency in its use with wider experience, and, as has been suggested, the relief of taxing officials at obtaining assessments so much better than anything that had ever been achieved before has closed their eyes to any possible defects in principle or practice.

A final point to be noted is the criticism that has been directed against the exploitation of the Somers system by a private company. The moral, and even the legal right of the assessor to employ so-called experts for assistance in making valuations has been questioned.[1] To this it replied that no assessment is made. The assessor is and must be left free to use his own judgment, though it is admitted that he would be considered very foolish indeed did he not accept the results of the Somers appraisal. There would be, of course, no other point in the employment of expert assistance in making the valuation. This objection seems far-fetched. It would be quite as sensible for the assessor to employ expert assistance as for the mayor to employ expert legal counsel or the waterworks department to employ a trained engineer. The mayor must ultimately decide his course of action, the legal responsibility for which rests upon him; but his decision may rest largely upon the advice of his counsel. The assessor must decide upon the assessed valuation, and there can be no objection to his relying upon expert advice as to the range of valuations. The more serious objection to the employment of outside agencies lies in the continued dependence of the assessor upon these agencies. It is better economy,

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[1] Report to the Merchants' and Manufacturers' association of Milwaukee on the Somers United System, by K. K. Kennan, 1911, 28 pp.

[1] *E. g.*, Mr. Kennan's Report. See also, Remarks of Messrs. Purdy and Pleydell, Proceedings National Tax Conference, 1913, pp. 267–283. Payment was refused in Columbus on account of the unsatisfactory character of the service rendered, and not because of the principle involved.

Mr. Purdy argues, to develop within the assessing department a body of experts who by reason of long tenure and serious attention to the problems of assessment have become efficient assessors, than to keep the actual assessors largely in the dark and dependent upon the professional appraiser. This, it must be admitted, is the administrative ideal, toward which the department of taxes and assessments of New York City has made some progress. In the meantime, and as a means for the attainment of this higher goal, there can be no objection to the employment of such assistance in making valuations as the Somers or any other good system affords, always provided that the assessing department is advancing, through its use, to a level of efficiency that will render it independent of the outside expert.

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Public Service Commission Reports.—Recent reports of various public service commissions indicate that rapid progress is being made by the state commissions in the proper regulation of utilities, and in securing that to which both the public and the investors are entitled, good service upon fair terms. The reports also indicate that in spite of the indefiniteness of the courts there are being developed at the present time by the commissions well defined precedents and principles in the regulation of utilities.

The decisions found in the report of the public service commission of Nevada[1] are unusually clearly written. The commission's attention has been largely absorbed with water and electric rate cases. The decisions are worthy of note because they point out the principles upon which the rates are based, which is not true of some of the commissions in more important states. The commission rejects the readiness to serve theory of electric rates, as applied by the Wisconsin and other commissions, and maintains that the proper basis of rate making is the amount of consumption.

The second report of the Connecticut public utilities commission[1] is largely a volume of statistics, showing the financial status and operating accounts of the companies under the commission's jurisdiction. The orders and decisions as included are only summaries, and therefore their value is lessened. The question of capitalization is not discussed since the commission has not been given the power to regulate the issuance of securities.

The Massachusetts legislature in 1913 abolished the railroad commission and established the public service commission, giving it jurisdiction over railroads, street railways, telegraph and telephone companies. The first report of the new public service commission[2] contains a thorough and outspoken discussion of the public utility policy of the state. The commission maintains that stockholders have no claim to a fair return upon their investments unless they provide a competent and efficient management, and that the trolley lines should not be owned by the railways.

The report of the Massachusetts gas and electric commission[3] contains operating statistics and prices charged for all the private gas and electric corporations, and also for the thirty-three municipal plants. These statistics are valuable for the purposes of comparison. The commission recommends some important new legislation on account of the recent decision of the Massachusetts supreme court in the Fall River gas case. It has always been the policy of the commission to refuse to permit utilities to issue securities against surplus. The Fall River decision seems to question the right of the commission to assume this position; therefore the commission recommends that it be authorized to refuse its approval to the issuance of securities if in the opinion of the commission "such issue would be inconsistent with the public interest."

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[1] Sixth Annual Report of the Railroad Commission and Third Annual Report of the Public Service Commission of Nevada, 1914.

[1] Second Annual Report of the Public Utilities Commission, State of Connecticut, 1914.

[2] First Annual Report of the Public Service Commission, Commonwealth of Massachusetts, 1914.

[3] Twenty-ninth Annual Report of the Board of Gas and Electric Light Commissions of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, 1914.

The Illinois public utilities commission was established January 1, 1914. It has issued a number of publications, including rules and decisions and its first annual report for the year ending November 30, 1914.[1] The latter discusses the work of organizing the commission; and shows a large amount of business brought before it —1,337 formal cases and 487 informal. Most of these have not been of much importance; and it is impossible as yet to judge of the probable efficiency of the commission from its decisions in rate and service cases. An important case under consideration deals with gas rates in Springfield; and an investigation of street railway service in Chicago has been undertaken. The decisions made indicate that the commission proposes to regard municipal utilities as monopolies, and to refuse its approval to competitive franchises.

The latest report of the Georgia railroad commission[2] is significant because of the position taken upon important questions of public utility valuation. This commission now has supervision over all the utilities in the state. The most important rate decision is in the case of the Macon railway and light company. In this decision the commission establishes the principle that franchises donated to utilities by the public, and "established business," are not to be included in the valuation of the property to be used for rate making purposes. The statistics included in this report show a steady growth in the amount of business done by the public service corporations in Georgia.

The Arizona corporation commission is probably called upon to exercise more diverse functions than any public service commission in the United States, since it has jurisdiction not only over the public utilities but also over insurance, investment and surety companies. The first report of the commission[1] indicates that it has not yet developed any principles of rate making or valuation, although it has apparently made careful investigations before permitting the issuance of securities.

The current report of the Maryland public service commission[2] emphasizes the necessity of adequate appropriations in order to secure the enforcement of proper laws. The commission maintains that it cannot enforce the law or supervise the service of the utilities as it should on account of the meagerness of its funds. The statistical portion of the report is among the most complete published by any of the commissions, showing for each utility in the state complete financial, operating, and property statistics. The most important rate case during the year was the one involving the gas and electric rates charged in the city of Baltimore.

An act abolishing the Ohio public service commission and establishing the Ohio public utilities commission became effective August 9, 1913. The principal changes effected by the act relate to the valuation of utilities and to court procedure or appeal from decisions of the commission. The act gives the commission power to conduct valuations of all privately or municipally owned utilities. The first report of the new commission[3] indicates that it has begun to conduct such appraisals. The attention of the commission has apparently been largely taken up by considering applications for authority to issue securities, but it cannot be said that the decisions give much definite information as to the principles followed by the commission in the control of capitalization. This value of this large volume is materially lessened because of the lack of a workable index.

The Nebraska railroad commission which now has jurisdiction over the various utilities of the state has been conducting a physical valuation of the various properties. The sixth report[1] of the commission indicates that a large amount of this work is completed. This valuation is used by the various taxing authorities throughout the state, as well as by the commission in fixing rates. The most important decision given by the commission is concerned with the telephone rates charged in Lincoln. In this decision the commission explains its theories of valuation, fair returns, and rate making.

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[1] First Annual Report of the State Public Utilities Commission of the State of Illinois, for the year ending November 30, 1914.

[2] Forty-first Report of the Railroad Commission of Georgia, 1914.

[1] First Annual Report of the Arizona Corporation Commission.

[2] Report of the Public Service Commission of Maryland, for the year, 1913.

[3] Report of the Public Utilities Commission of Ohio, for 1913.

The first report of the Idaho public utilities commission[2] indicates a deplorable condition as to appropriations. The financial provisions made are so scant that the only expert assistant the commission has been able to employ is one accountant, not being able to afford either rate experts or engineers. The commission also affirms that its powers are too limited to result in effective supervision and urges that it should be given control over the issuance of securities. The commission has done little in the regulation of rates, but has emphasized the improvement of service, and the provision of adequate facilities. It has taken a stand in favor of monopoly in the local utility field, and refuses a certificate of necessity to would-be competing utilities.

A considerable number of the commissions publish their annual reports and their decisions in separate volumes, the former being accounts of the transactions and business of the year and the statistical data and reports of the utilities, and the latter being the opinions and orders of the commission. This plan is followed by the commissions in Missouri, California, New Hampshire, New York, and Wisconsin.

The first annual report of the Missouri public service commission[3] explains the organization of the various departments and the rules for the conduct of its business. Its decisions thus far are published in five separate volumes, called "advance sheets"[1] which are later to be published as "reports of cases." These volumes are exceedingly well arranged for reference purposes, as each one contains an indexed digest, arranged by subjects. These decisions are well considered, exhaustive, and ably written. There has been no tendency to base the decisions upon general considerations, the fundamental principles of rate making, valuation, service and capitalization applied by the commission being clearly indicated and explained in each decision.

The third report of the public service commission of New Hampshire[2] is devoted to the annual reports of the utilities under the commission's jurisdiction, for 1913. The third volume of orders and decisions of this commission has also been published.[3] Perhaps the decision of most importance in this volume so far as principles established are concerned, is that involving the rates of the Berlin electric company. In this case the commission maintains that in valuations to be used for rate making purposes that "established business" is not to be included, except at the actual cost of building up such business. Advance sheets of the fourth volume of decisions, including those made up to June, 1914, have also been published.[4]

The latest report of the public service commission for the New York second district[5] contains a detailed description of the methods followed by the commission in its investigation and control of service, the methods used to enforce its service requirements, and the methods used in the supervision and control of service, and of accounting practice. It recommends that the commission be given the power to suspend the taking effect of advanced rates, pending investigation, and that the

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[1] Sixth Annual Report of the Nebraska State Railway Commission, 1914.

[2] Report of the Public Utilities Commission of the State of Idaho, 1914.

[3] First Annual Report of the Public Service Commission of Missouri, 1914.

[1] Missouri Public Service Commission Reports, Vol. 1, Advance Sheets 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.

[2] Report of the Public Service Commission of New Hampshire; Vol. III.

[3] New Hampshire Public Service Commission Reports, Vol. III.

[4] Reports and Orders of the Public Service Commission of New Hampshire, Vol. IV, Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4.

[5] Seventh Annual Report of the Public Service Commission, Second District, New York, 1914.

telephone businesses not conducted for profit, the so-called "mutuals," be brought under the commission's jurisdiction.

The California railroad commission has published its second volume of orders and decisions.[1] Much of the attention of this commission is demanded by a problem which does not exist for the eastern commissions—the regulation of the service and rates of irrigation companies. The volume is noteworthy because in it the commission apparently accepts certain principles which have been widely rejected by other commissions, *e. g.*, original cost as the most important factor in valuation, a liberal reward to the promoter, and approval of competition as a means of securing proper service and rates.

Attention may also be called to the compilation of Minnesota public utility rates, prepared by the municipal reference bureau of the University of Minnesota; and to the report on regulation of public service companies in Great Britain, by Robert H. Whitten, librarian-statistican of the New York public service commission for the first district.[2]

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Hospital Efficiency.—*Philadelphia Investigation* of the Philadelphia County Medical Society's committee.

The report on hospital efficiency[3] was made October 21, 1914. It recounts the measures taken during two years to determine the hospital situation in Philadelphia. No attempt is made to compare its hospitals, in respect to organization and management, with those of other cities. Probably the situation is much the same in Philadelphia as in other great cities of the country.

The committee has sought first-hand information by visiting the principal hospitals and dispensaries of the city. It has also held conferences with their representatives and with representatives of other organizations, *e. g.*, the state board of charities, at which, plans for: (1) the establishment of a central purchasing bureau; (2) the employment of an efficiency engineer to prepare a report on the situation; and (3) to devise a uniform system of hospital accounting and statistics, were considered. None of the plans seems to have passed beyond the stage of discussion.

Broadly speaking, the committee finds that full elucidation of the situation demands greater expenditures of money and personal service than the resources of the committee or of the county medical society admit of. So the committee asks to be discharged. At the same time, the committee recommends various measures, whose adoption by the hospitals and dispensaries could hardly fail to enhance their efficiency. Indeed, fully one third of the report consists of recommendations to be urged by the county medical society upon the several hospitals and dispensaries. But, in view of the present situation as sketched by the committee, many of the recommendations take on the aspect of mere counsels of perfection.

The report contains very little statistical information. The committee frankly says "Owing to the absence of any attempt at standardization in the numerous institutions visited, it has been impossible for us to make our medical and financial statistics either complete or accurate. . . . . In 31 per cent of the hospitals visited, the records . . . are absolutely useless for scientific purposes."

This plaint of the committee has a familiar sound. Wherever attempts to secure "uniform statistics," whether from private or municipal institutions and departments, have been made in response to the demands of dilettante statisticians or of passionate advocates of efficiency and uplift, such attempts have usually been rendered nugatory by the unsatisfactory nature of fundamental data at their source.

The committee appears to be deeply impressed by the lack of definite "standards by which to measure the efficiency of a hospital." Accordingly it declares that—

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[1] Opinions and Orders of the Railroad Commission of California, Vol. 2.

[2] Ralph E. Heilman, University of Illinois.

[3] Report of the Committee on Hospital Efficiency of the Philadelphia county medical society, Vol. X, No. 9, of the Weekly Roster of the Medical Organizations of Philadelphia, pp. 14–21.

> It would be of great assistance in paving the way for the proposed local study, if some organization with adequate resources at its command, would first make a preliminary study of the entire hospital situation in the United States and define standards by which to measure the efficiency of a hospital.
>
> We, therefore, recommend that the county medical society endorse the request which the American medical association, the American congress of clinical surgeons, and the American hospital association have forwarded to the Carnegie foundation, asking that the foundation prepare a report on the classification and standardization of hospitals.

All in all, this recommendation of the committee strikes the reviewer as the most illuminating and significant of the many recommendations set forth in the report.

The scope of the report is indicated by the following list of the principal topics considered therein, viz.:

1. Medical records and follow-on systems; 2, Medical staff; 3, Social service; 4, Dispensary organization and dispensary abuse; 5, Dispensary fees; 6, Hospital bureau of standards and supplies.

The committee thinks well of social service departments, follow-on systems and other modern features, but does not blink the fact that they are still in the experimental stage in Philadelphia, and cannot achieve a full measure of effectiveness so long as the present untoward, fundamental conditions continue, and the present vague and indefinite standards of efficiency obtain.

The committee's strictures on the imperfect and heterogeneous methods of hospital records would have more point and edge if it had reported the total number of hospitals and dispensaries in Philadelphia.

In addition to the findings of the committee already noted, the following are noteworthy: (1) Only 3 of the 16 largest hospitals maintain a separate file in which all of the operations performed are recorded, and operations of like character are grouped together. . . . Only 7 of the 16 have any method of making sure that the diagnosis is entered in the record. . . . The 8 hospitals whose medical histories are scientifically filed, use four different systems of classification. . . . In no hospital is the same system of classification used in both house and dispensary. (2) 2,291 appointments to the medical staff in 59 hospitals and dispensaries are held by 1,316 doctors, of whom 225 hold at least 3 appointments. As a rule the service is not continuous for more than from three to six months. (3) Social service departments, comprising 77 social workers, are maintained by 26 hospitals. Most of those visited do not form an integral part of the hospital. (4) The dispensaries are rather loosely organized and administered, and dispensary fees, which vary widely, appear not to be charged in most of the dispensaries visited.

Among the committee's most significant recommendations, the following may be mentioned: (1) that the county medical society prepare a uniform system of morbidity records and statistics, based on the international classification of diseases and conditions, and urge every institution to adopt the system with appropriate variations in the case of certain hospitals; (2) urge each hospital to perfect its system of medical records regarding patients before and after discharge; (3) develop the medical organization of every hospital toward the point where every member of the medical staff will give continuous service; (4) establish a social service department under the superintendent in every hospital; and provide for its support from hospital funds; (5) place dispensaries under a competent paid executive officer (subject to control by the superintendent of the hospital) with clearly defined duties and powers; (6) fix a small fee for registration and treatment in a dispensary, to be collected at the admitting desk. Turn away no applicant unless he can afford to employ a private doctor; (7) urge each hospital to join the hospital bureau of standards and supplies in New York for the purpose of securing goods of guaranteed quality at the most favorable rates.

This report may be concisely characterized as only a preliminary survey of the hospital situation in Philadelphia. But Philadelphia is so important a center of medical education and of medical charities, that the committee's findings and recommendations should excite more than local interest and are worthy of more than passing attention.

The report is welcome and informing by reason of what is implied, as well as by reason of what is explicitly set forth. The committee frankly admits its inability, after two years' study, to make a conclusive report. The existence of certain fundamental obstacles and difficulties is convincingly set forth. Moreover, the report seems to indicate the committee's belief that there is such a lack of competent investigators and of approved standards of efficiency as to make it unlikely that anyone could have made a complete and conclusive report.

Those who indulge in apocalyptic visions of a new earth, in which every institution, after its kind, shall yield uniform results, reports and statistics, will do well to mark and inwardly digest the explicit and implicit teachings of this report. Questionnaires are relatively cheap, but definite, and conclusive answers come high, because they cost much money, and very much labor and time.[1]

New York Investigation. In wealth of detail, exhaustive statistics and painstaking accuracy, the report of the Committee on Inquiry into the Departments of Health, Charities, and Bellevue and Allied Hospitals[2] could hardly be surpassed. It is a most thorough intensive survey of practically all the economic and administrative conditions in the departments named. The report, prepared by the board of estimate and apportionment, deals with a field in which standards and experts are both yet lacking. Therefore the investigation and report were placed in charge of Henry C. Wright of the Russell Sage Foundation, who has made extended examinations of the fiscal control of various state institutions, with the effect in some cases of securing radical reformatory co-operation. In reaching his conclusions and making his recommendations, Mr. Wright was largely guided by the council of many leading physicians and educators. The most hearty co-operation was rendered by the officials of the department of health, and the hospitals, but assistance was not so free on the part of the department of public charities. However, most of the information needed was secured.

The report is primarily constructive, not merely analytically destructive, as is the case with many less thorough investigations. Although many serious defects are shown to exist, in no case is the reader left to flounder helplessly in a morass of criticism, which leads nowhere except to irritation, and the "what-are-you-going-to-do-about-it?" attitude; but the most helpful and efficient suggestions for reform are everywhere evidenced, resulting in the effects of the study being far from restricted and tentative. As the object of all such investigations is the securing of reform either administrative, executive or legislative, it is gratifying to note that many of the recommendations advanced in the report have already been carried out by the authorities concerned. Examples of these effected reforms are:

The more careful distribution of food in Metropolitan hospital; the painstaking experiment in the distribution of food in Bellevue hospital, resulting in the marked reduction in the amount of meat used; changes in the method of caring for children in several of the hospitals; the removal of cripples and the blind from the farm colony; the appropriation for instructors of industrial work for the department of public charities.

However, much still remains to be done ere the ideal in effective administration be attained. The most important recommendations of the committee which have not been carried out are five in number, as follows:

1. The re-organization of the medical service of Bellevue hospital. 2. The proposed health centers, in which the

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[1] Edward M. Hartwell, Boston, Mass.

[2] Report of the Committee on Inquiry into the Departments of Health, Charities, Bellevue and Allied Hospitals of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of the City of New York, 1914.

health department and Bellevue hospital shall co-operate, as a form of hospital field-work. 3. A new children's hospital for long term cases. 4. Physical examination and employment of inmates of city almshouses, where over 1,500 inmates, capable of doing light work, are doing nothing. 5. The reorganization of hospital helpers, with the object of getting rid of "floaters."

If the economies recommended by the committee be enforced with regard to the handling of supplies and food, and with regard to collecting for the care of non-residents and deportable aliens, the saving to the city hall will much more than offset any expenditures required for the purpose of putting the constructive recommendations of the committee into operation.

The greatest importance of the report to departments of health is in the proposed health center, which, properly operated, should accomplish the result of bringing the hospitals and health departments into active co-operation and leave no uncovered territory between the functions performed by each.

An individual instance of the resulting efficiency is that cases of contagion discovered by the hospitals would come to the health department at once and thus obviate the delay due to notification by mail. Again, centralizing information and records of a district at one place would render it possible to treat a large proportion of sickness at its inception. All the functions as performed by the different divisions of the health department for the district should be centralized in the health center; Bellevue hospital would assign to it one graduate interne, two trained social service nurses, and four nurse attendants. As all of the functions of the proposed health center to be assigned to the health department are at present performed by it, there would be no material increase in individual or aggregate expense while there would be a much greater service rendered.

In my judgment, all preventive work should be done by the department of health. All follow-up work should, therefore, be done by them through their public health nurses, and the social service division of the department of health. All social conditions found by the public health nurses in these centers could be referred to proper social agency. Prevention is not the function of a hospital; prevention is the function of a department of health.

In its entirety I consider the report a most creditable one.[1]

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The Chicago Municipal Markets Commission.—On October 27, 1913, Alderman James H. Lawley, a member of the Chicago city council presented an order which was duly passed that "the mayor be requested to appoint a commission to make a thorough study of the high cost of living and report its recommendations to the council on the subject of municipal markets, warehouses and other agencies of municipal service, such commission to be composed of three members of the council; three representatives of social settlements, one in each division of the city; one representative of the association of commerce; one representative of the city club; one representative of the woman's city club and one transportation engineer."[2]

Mayor Harrison shortly thereafter, in compliance with the terms of this order, appointed a "commission to make a study into the subject of municipal markets and other agencies to bring the producer and consumer into closer contact."

The commission has held a large number of public hearings since its first meeting, November 21, 1913, at which representatives of the producers, transportation interest, commission men, wholesalers, jobbers, retailers and consumers, especially capable of furnishing information on the subjects under investigation, have been examined.

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[1] Charles J. Hastings, Director, Toronto Department of Health.

[2] The commission at present consists of the following members: Alderman James H. Lawley, chairman; Alderman August Krumholz; Alderman John Toman; Miss Gertrude V. Soule, of the University of Chicago settlement; Mrs. C. Franklin Leavitt, Eli Bates house; Professor Graham Taylor, president, Chicago commons; Mr. Fred A. Curtis, representing the city club of Chicago; Mrs. John C. Bley, representing the woman's city club. Frederick Rex, the municipal reference librarian was chosen secretary.

On April 27, 1914, the commission submitted a preliminary report which found that Chicago's present market facilities are merely private trading centers where middlemen and speculators gather. These markets as now constituted are entirely inadequate, unsanitary and extremely wasteful. It was urged by the commission that the city proceed to formulate plans and proposals for a comprehensive system of wholesale terminal markets under the control of the city, designed to render efficient and satisfactory service to the consuming public.

The commission urged that retail markets be established by the city whenever private retailers by excessive and unreasonable prices or an unwholesome food supply failed to render satisfactory service to the economically weaker part of the city's population; that farmers' markets should be established in open or covered public places adjacent to the centers of population and in such other sections where bodies of consumers may apply for them, these markets to be made accessible to the producers for the sale of articles of fresh garden truck and other staple products to the consumer direct.

Peddlers, hucksters and pushcart men were found to be an economic necessity and tending greatly to reduce the high cost of living to the people living in certain sections of the city. Vending of food supplies by these classes, it was urged, should be considered an established and legitimate business and inasmuch as they are liable to sell food products to the consumer at greatly reduced prices over the prices prevailing at the retail store, due to the low operating cost of the former, such business as they conducted be encouraged by the municipal authorities. It was predicated, however, that all such be subjected to certain necessary sanitary and police regulations and such rules as may be required to prevent undue congestion of vehicle traffic in the streets.

The commission recommended that an ordinance be passed requiring all persons, firms or corporations in the city receiving farm produce of any kind for sale on commission to keep a complete record of the amount and kind of produce received and of the sales made and the prices received, together with the dates of the receipts and sales and the names and addresses of the shipper and purchaser, such records to be open to the inspection of the shipper or the consignor of commodities and to official inspection by the city. Commission merchants under the terms of the proposed ordinance should be required to take out a license from the proper city department and give adequate bonds of surety for the faithful performance of their work and sanitary operation of their places of business. Should it be shown that any person doing a commission business in the city is guilty of fraud, deceit, unlawful practices or conducts his business of handling food supplies in an unsanitary manner, provision is made for the revocation of the license so that such person can no longer carry on a commission business in Chicago.

It was urged that a city tribunal be created in the department of public welfare before which any person may lay a complaint of injustice or unfair treatment incurred in the distribution of food supplies. This tribunal would be empowered to investigate all charges made against producers, wholesalers and retailers and investigate any charges that might be made relative to corners in food supplies, combinations in restraint of trade, storage of surplus products by jobbers and other agencies and into extortionate prices.

In order to give the producer direct access to the markets of the city and to furnish the consumer with a fresh and more varied allotment of farm products, the commission recommended that freight service be placed in operation over the present existing street and elevated railway lines and the interurban street railways be given direct access to the city markets and to such other points in the city convenient to the consuming public for the delivery of fruits, vegetables and dairy products. It is believed that the rapid and easy access to the new markets achieved by the establishment of street railway frieght service to and from the city will encourage production and that the large amount of land adjacent to the city at present lying undeveloped will be divided into small truck, poultry, dairy and fruit farms. Such trolley freight service over the street and elevated railway lines in the city, however, should not be permitted to interfere with the proper handling of the passenger traffic and should only be operated during the hours at night or day when the passenger service is at a minimum and practically at a standstill.

In August of last year the commission had an ordinance passed to prevent and punish forestalling and regrating in foodstuffs. At the beginning of the present European war, there was a sudden rise in the prices of foodstuffs in Chicago as in other cities and the commission, through continued agitation and publicity, was largely instrumental in keeping retail prices within bounds and in restraining the then prevailing tendency of boosting prices by dealers to a considerable extent.

Acting under a resolution introduced in August, 1914, by Alderman Charles E. Merriam, the commission has carried on an investigation of unemployment, and on December 28, 1914, submitted a report on a plan for relieving destitution and unemployment in Chicago. In its conclusions the commission finds that the prevailing unemployment in that city is not entirely due to the European War, but is rather a chronic result of the maladjustment of industry and trade. The commission recommends the organization of a municipal employment bureau, the adoption of a comprehensive plan of public works and improvements in relation to periods of industrial depression, and a policy of part or short time work for the unemployed by private and public employers.

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Census Statistics.—Among the recent publications of the United States bureau of the census is Bulletin No. 126, with the title, "Financial Statistics of Cities Having a Population of Over 30,000, 1913." This publication presents statistics for 199 cities. A comparison of this publication with Bulletin No. 118 with the title, "Financial Statistics of Cities Having a Population of Over 30,000: 1912," brings into prominence a number of facts very interesting to students of statistics.

Bulletin No. 126 presents statistics for all of the 195 cities for which Bulletin No. 118 gave statistical data and for four other cities whose estimated population reached 30,000 between July 1, 1912, and July 1, 1913. Further the reported receipts, payments and tax levies for 126 of these cities, or 64 per cent of them, are exactly the same in the two publications, while the reported population and area of these 126 cities as of the other 69 are given in the one bulletin as of July 1, 1912, and in the other as of July 1, 1913. Bulletin No. 126 does not present any explanation of this duplication, nor even make mention of the same. Unless some sufficient reason exists to justify this procedure, it must be considered a waste of public money made under circumstances which are sure to mislead the average reader as may be seen by a consideration of the facts which follow.

The average, or per capita receipts, payments and tax levies of Bulletin No. 118 are computed on the basis of the estimated population of July 1, 1912. Those of the other bulletin on the basis of the population one year later. As a result all per capita figures for the 126 cities referred to are less in Bulletin No. 126 than in that of No. 118, and to the extent of the difference are in error, since they are computed, not on the basis of the population at the middle point of the period to which they relate, as called for by correct statistics, but on the basis of a population at a time after the close of that period, and as for a date which varies from 11 months in the case of Boston, to two years in the case of the school per capitas of such cities as Seattle, Portland, Oregon, and Tacoma. Some of these errors are worthy of special mention.

The population of the five large cities of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Cleveland and Baltimore, as estimated for the middle of their fiscal year, which ended December 31, 1912, was 10,131,580, while one year later it was 10,372,136, or nearly 2.4 per cent greater. By using the later figures the per capita figures for these cities in Bulletin No. 126 are improperly all reduced and given as an error which is equal to 2.4 per cent of the amounts stated in Bulletin No. 126. The corresponding average error in the case of the three progressive and rapidly growing cities of Seattle, Portland, Oregon, and Denver is 5.2 per cent. The figures for Chattanooga, Tennessee, are, however, the most striking. That city in the period between July 1, 1912, and July 1, 1913, increased its land area by annexation from 3,031 acres to 4,196 acres and its estimated population, including that of the added territory, increased from 47,339 to 55,646, a gain of 17.5 per cent. Of the increased population, about three-fourths resided in the annexed territory and never contributed one cent to the receipts reported in the two bulletins, and for them not one dollar of the reported payments were expended. Hence the average error of 17.5 per cent in all of the per capitas for this city in Bulletin 126 hardly justifies the only changes which that bulletin makes in the figures for Chattanooga as given in Bulletin No. 118.

Such errors as those given in Bulletin No. 126 for the cities mentioned by name and those for all of the 126 cities referred to, if repeated in future census statistics of cities or allowed to be used in other census publications, will seriously lessen their usefulness. Furthermore, Bulletin No. 126 is misleading, in that on the face of it, it seems to give data for the year 1913, while as a matter of fact data for practically two-thirds of the cities are for the year 1912 and for the other cities for years ending anywhere from January 31 to June 30, 1913, there being only 23 out of the 199 cities whose financial year ended June 30, 1913. There hardly seems any excuse for giving a title to a publication which is true as to less than one-eighth of the cities and not true in the fullest sense as to these, since data are not given for any city for the full year 1913.

We are not in a position to say just where the fault lies but certainly some department of the government deserves criticism for the delay in issuing a number of the census bulletins and this is particularly applicable to Census Bulletin No. 126. Since the data for nearly two-thirds of the cities were in hand and used in Bulletin No. 118, there seems little excuse for the long delay in preparing this bulletin for publication. Bulletin No. 118 was issued December 15, 1913, eleven and one-half months after the close of the period covered, the data for all of the 195 cities being collected during that time. Bulletin No. 126 was issued July 30, 1914, thirteen months after the close of the period covered, notwithstanding the fact that data were collected for only 73 cities out of the 199 cities.[1]

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Civil Service Reports

A Model Civil Service Law Embodying the Essential Principles of a Practical Merit System of Public Employment. Proposed by the committee of the National Assembly of Civil Service Commissions.

Proceedings at the Annual Meeting of the National Civil Service Reform League. Held at Boston, Massachusetts, December 11 and 12, 1913.

The first of the above titles introduces a pamphlet that is of considerable importance to all interested in the establishment of a well considered merit system in the public service. It was originally intended that the proposals should represent the views of the committees of both the National assembly of civil service commissions and the National civil service reform league. In fact the committees representing these respective organizations did cooperate during a portion of their labors. It is indeed unfortunate therefore that in a matter of such importance a joint report could not have been submitted. It would have given the model law for a merit system a degree of weight and prestige which no single committee report is able to carry with it. Inasmuch as the two committees had held a three days' joint session forty days before the presentation of the report made by the committee of the National assembly of civil service commissions it is probable that the two committees found it impossible to agree on some of the important features of a model civil service law, and that consequently the committee of the National assembly of civil service commissions has gone forward with their proposals and that the report of the National civil service reform league committee may be expected later.

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[1] Horace E. Flack, Baltimore, Md.

The report of the model law is prefaced by a statement of what the committee regards as the four great principles of the merit system: (1) Government should be controlled by the people; (2) Public offices and places which are not directly charged with the conduct of general political policies belong of right to all of the people; (3) Civil service shall be efficient; (4) The government in its capacity as an employer should be just and fair to its own employes.

The principal features of the model law proposed are as follows:

(1) It includes state, county and municipal service. There are certain exceptions such as popularly elected officers, those whose appointment is provided for in the constitution, persons employed by contract to perform work which regular employes cannot do, special examiners, military officers, etc. An exception which may appear too broad to some is that which gives to the governor, mayor, or other chief executive freedom of appointment to the number of ten assistants for the formulation of general executive policies.

(2) The proposed law conforms to the Illinois practice of not giving the state civil service commission authority to make further exceptions to the operation of the act. This feature is at variance with the practice of most of the states.

(3) The civil service commission shall, under the proposed law, always certify the person standing highest on the list of eligibles for the respective offices and such person shall forthwith be appointed by the appointing authority.

(4) The civil service commissions are to be selected by a merit system which involves the preparation of a list of eligibles for appointment to such commissions by a temporary board of special examiners. This board of special examiners is to be appointed by the governor who is to be guided by further detailed provisions of the law in making his appointments.

(5) The commissions are given large jurisdiction over the public service, powers of investigation, standardization and classification, the making of rules and regulations, the holding of examinations, the requiring of reports, and the holding of hearings on charges involving possible removals.

(6) There are suitable provisions with respect to reports by the commission, the prohibitions of frauds and abuses, political activity, penalties, prosecutions, civil suits, and repealing enactments.

Altogether the proposals are valuable. Like all such model laws the purpose is to guide those engaged in the enactment of laws affecting the public service in such a manner as to enable them best to realize the ideals of the merit system. All students of the subject will await with eagerness the report of the committee of the National civil service reform league. We may assume that the two reports will place before us the best judgment of these organizations with respect to the merit system, will enable comparison of views, and that together they will exert a powerful influence over civil service legislation in the future.

In connection with the model civil service law the proceedings announced in the second pamphlet should be noted. The 137 pages of this booklet contain the annual report of the council of the league, the reports from the women's auxiliaries in Massachusetts and New York, and Maryland, the reports from the local associations, nine states and four municipalities being heard from. In addition also to the account of the regular business sessions and the resolutions the reports of two special committees are presented, viz., the committee on reform in the consular and diplomatic service and the committee on removals in the civil service. The latter offered the draft of a plan for the regulation of discipline in the competitive service. The features of this draft are that it provides for an administrative disciplinary board to receive and act upon complaints against those in the competitive service. The decisions of this board are not to be subject to review in the courts except upon a writ of mandamus and then only for the purpose of ascertaining whether the procedure prescribed for the board has been complied with. This plan would make it possible to remove for incompetency where such action is now manifestly difficult.

The papers which were presented at the sessions of the league are published as a part of the proceedings. Of special interest to students of municipal government will be those on "The City Manager Plan—Its Contribution to the Growth of a Non-Political and Efficient Personnel in Municipal Administration," by Mr. H. S. Gilbertson; "The Choice of Municipal Experts through Competitive Examinations in Philadelphia," by Hon. Lewis H. Van Dusen; and "How the Selection and Retention of Experts Have Taken Contracts out of Politics in Philadelphia," by Lieut. James Reed.

Russell M. Story.
University of Illinois.

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Public Works Reports.[1]—The annual reports of the departments of public works of Philadelphia and Chicago have been singled out, not because they are the only reports of departments of public works which are at hand, but rather because they fairly represent the contrasts which obtain in the large number of such reports which are being issued to-day. The report of Director Morris L. Cooke of the Philadelphia department of public works deserves to rank as a classic in municipal literature. We hope it was widely circulated among the citizens of the City of Brotherly Love. If it was, it was probably widely read for it was intensely interesting, and if read, the citizens of the municipality should have some adequate conception of what has been going on in the department. A more entertaining and instructive pamphlet has not come to the hand of the writer in many weeks. A summary view of "What has been accomplished" is presented in less than two pages and under 14 separate paragraphs. The report then presents a broad-minded, but searching analysis of the work of the department and the problems that must be faced. The achievements are modestly but happily indicated, the obstacles to success unhesitatingly pointed out. The writer is a public servant with a vision and his report evidences his enthusiasm, both the vision and the enthusiasm imparting themselves to the reader. A similar report issued last year bears the same marks of exceptional value, readability, and quality of expression.

The report of the commissioner of the department of public works in Chicago is a volume of some 532 pages, exclusive of the index. This is supplemented by a number of charts and maps. The written report of the commissioner himself takes up but 28 pages, while the rest of the volume is devoted to the reports of the various heads of bureaus. The presentation is detailed, matter-of-fact, thoroughly official. It lacks the flesh and blood which would make the report readable. One would have to read all the 37 reports which preceded it, if they are like it, in order to get any comprehensive conception of what the situation in the department to-day is. The number of citizens outside of the mayor and council who read it would not make up a corporal's guard. It is a contribution to the files, but performs no service of a living, constructive nature to the municipality itself. The reader yawns before fairly started on his perusal and vows that government is dull business. Yet it is but one of thousands of similar reports being issued in departments, national, state and municipal. Unlike many other reports of similar nature which repose on the shelves content with bibliographical mention, it has merely had the misfortune to be called into the limelight by way of contrast.

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[1] Annual Report of the Director of the Department of Public Works of the City of Philadelphia, for the year ending December 31, 1913.

Thirty-eighth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Public Works of the City of Chicago, for the year ending December 31, 1913.

It should be noted, however, that the distribution of this and other city of Chicago reports is now in the hands of the municipal reference bureau of the Chicago public library.[1]

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The Payment of Fines in Installments by Offenders.—Prepared by the municipal reference library, a branch of the Chicago public library, at the request of Alderman Thomas D. Nash, a member of the Chicago city council, and chairman of the sub-committee of the committee on judiciary. This sub-committee was appointed to consider the subject of establishing a system for the payment on the installment plan of minor fines imposed in the municipal court for violation of city ordinances. The introduction briefly reviews the history of the movement for the payment of fines by installments, indicates the situation now existing in Chicago, and points out the salient benefits to be derived from the installment payment system. The practice in Boston, Buffalo, Chicago, Cleveland, Indianapolis, Kansas City, and the states of Illinois, Massachusetts, New York and Pennsylvania is then presented in the remaining pages. The pamphlet will be of service to students of the subject outside of Chicago.

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Proceedings of City Councils in Illinois.—A considerable number of city councils in Illinois are now publishing their proceedings, though the practice is for the most part limited to cities under the commission form of government. Chicago, of course, does considerable publishing both of council proceedings and departmental reports. Agencies such as the city club and the bureau of public efficiency contribute much to the value of the publications issued with regard to Chicago municipal government. Among the other cities of the state worthy of mention are Rockford, Springfield, Moline, Rock Island, Joliet, Decatur, Kewanee and Pekin. Rockford publishes reports and descriptive pamphlets from time to time. The proceedings are generally published without index and thus are rather difficult to use with great satisfaction; but the fact that they are published will hasten the day when an adequate study of municipal government in Illinois may be made.

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The Municipal Manual, City of Winnipeg, 1914.—*Compiled by M. Peterson, city clerk,* upon which Mr. Peterson and the city of Winnipeg are to be congratulated. Assuming the accuracy of the booklet, its usefulness, attractiveness, compactness and arrangement of a very considerable body of interesting material is deserving of commendation. Moreover, there is an ample index to the more than 160 topics covered in the manual. The work is a good example of the printers' and bookmakers' art, good paper, about 150 well-printed pages, vest pocket size and bound in flexible green leather. Examples of the usefulness of the material presented are the following: Tables of the cost of local improvements such as sidewalks, pavements, etc., financial summary of the city's properties, assets, liabilities, etc., review of the situation respecting municipal ownership, presentation of the problems relative to the future water supply, historical material, statistical tables, etc.

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Forty-Third Annual Report of The Local Government Board (England and Wales) 1913–14.—*Supplement containing a Third Report on Infant Mortality.* This work comprises the results of an investigation in Lancashire with special reports on the towns of Burnley, Colne, and Nelson, Wigan, Stretford, Widnes and Farnworth. Eight appendices cover some 20 additional pages, making a total of over 200. The report calls attention to the improvement of the situation in respect to infant mortality, presents the infant welfare work which is being carried on and points out the connection between the lowering of the infant mortality rate and the expenditure in improved housing, reformed scavenging, more satisfactory disposal of refuse, paving of streets and yards, and educational efforts. It is pointed out, however, that the exact measure of the extent to which these improvements are responsible for the declining mortality rate among infants cannot be accurately determined, though some effort is made to approximate their value.

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[1] Russell M. Story, University of Illinois.

R. M. S.

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The State Highway Department of Pennsylvania.—The strong national impulse toward the building of better roads has an evidence in the issue of the first two copies of a quarterly entitled *Pennsylvania Highway News*, which is the official bulletin of the state highway department. In addition to the necessary official information, this well-arranged publication shows life and interest in a fashion not common to departmental or governmental reports. It is freely illustrated from photographs, and is plainly intended not only to show what the state department has done and is doing, but as well the advisability of further and more thorough work.

The Pennsylvania department has come in for fierce criticism as to its methods and accomplishments, with which this review can of course have nothing to do. The publication above mentioned is most commendable, and it is significant that there is shown a distinct disposition in the work of the department to foster civic improvement in communities touched upon by the highways. E. M. Bigelow, the head of the department, has had the laws of Pennsylvania with respect to the removal of intrusive, confusing and ugly signs along the roads, enforced, quietly and without blare of trumpets. He has preserved trees wherever possible, and has fostered the planting and growth of other trees. He has cast the influence of the department toward the improvement of communities, and especially of their approaches.

The *Pennsylvania Highways News* fosters that solidarity in an organization which can be brought about by an interchange of views and of accounts of work, and in this action much is done toward greater efficiency. It is one of the most unpleasing things to note in many governmental administrative functions the utter lack of interrelation or consultation or co-operation. It would be of great value if in some way all the administrative departments in any state government could be compelled to consult together constantly and freely.[1]

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Miscellaneous Publications.—A number of recent state and municipal documents that are worthy of the attention of those interested in municipal government follow:

In February, 1914, there appeared in the Washington *Herald* a series of seven articles by Henry B. F. MacFarland on "The Nation's Relations with Its Capital City." Mr. MacFarland was president of the board of district commissioners for ten years, 1900 to 1910. The articles were written primarily to urge a more liberal policy in the development of the city of Washington on the basis of half the expenses of the administration of the District of Columbia being borne by the nation at large and half by the residents of the district. Incidental to the main purpose, however, much other interesting material is incorporated. They have been published in pamphlet form with a foreword of explanation from the Washington *Herald*.

First Draft of Town Planning Act Prepared by a Committee on Town Planning and Housing Legislation, appointed by the Commission of Conservation, Ottawa; Canada, 1914. A pamphlet which will interest students, officials and citizens concerned with the problems of town planning. The draft proposes a provincial town planning board or "central board," and a local housing and town planning board, and it is through these two agencies that the vast powers which have to be called into operation in the carrying out of town planning schemes are to be exercised.

R. M. S.

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[1] J. Horace McFarland.

IV. BIBLIOGRAPHY[1]

REFERENCES TO MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS IN GOVERNORS' MESSAGES OF 1915

The messages of the governors of the following states contained no reference to matters affecting cities: Colorado, Indiana. Iowa, Kansas, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, South Carolina, Utah, Vermont (inaugural), West Virginia, Wyoming. Messages of the governors of Arkansas, South Dakota, Tennessee and Texas had not been received up to the time of going to press. The legislatures of the states of Florida and Georgia and of the territories of Alaska and Hawaii meet too late to make it possible to include messages of the governors in this list.

ACCOUNTING.—*North Dakota.* Recommendation for an appropriation for examination of accounting systems of counties and municipalities with view of adoption of uniform accounting systems. (Hanna. Message, p. 7.)

New Hampshire. Recommendation that system of municipal accounting in state be investigated either by a special committee or by the tax commission. (Spaulding. Message, p. 6.)

CHARTERS.—*Delaware.* General incorporation law for towns recommended. (Miller. Message, p. 23.)

Idaho. Adoption recommended for all cities, as charters, of the Black law of March 13, 1911. "It places cities on the basis of a business corporation." (Alexander. Message, p. 26–27.)

Oklahoma. Special charters for municipalities recommended. (Williams. Inaugural, p. 21.)

CONSOLIDATION OF BOARDS.—*Illinois.* Consolidation of Board of South Park Commissioners, Board of West Park Commissioners and Board of Lincoln Park Commissioners recommended. (Dunne. Biennial, p. 19.)

ELECTIONS. — *Illinois.* Elections for city, village, township, school districts, counties and state are unnecessarily frequent and too costly. Cost of a single primary election in Chicago alone is $275,000, and of a single final election $320,000. Recommendation for passage of bills requiring all city, village, township and school elections to be held on same day and only once in two years. (Dunne. Biennial, p. 7.)

FINANCE.—*Massachusetts.* Criticism of inconsistency in prescribing one theory of financing for cities and towns, while following an entirely different one for the Commonwealth; instance. (Walsh. Address, p. 10.)

HOME RULE.—*Connecticut.* Too much time of General Assembly taken up with matters relating to administration of local affairs. Larger degree of local self-government under a general law recommended for municipalities. (Holcomb. Inaugural, p. 10.)

Delaware. "Constitution wisely provides that all our cities and municipalities shall come to the General Assembly for their legislation." (Miller. Message, p. 23.)

Maine. Recommendation that mandatory laws enacted through influence of party politicians shall not be allowed to become effective until accepted by the municipal officers at least. (Curtis. Inaugural address, p. 5.)

Massachusetts. Among questions suggested as most persistently pressing for constitutional authority is the "right of cities and towns to deal in necessaries of life in times of public distress." (Walsh. Address, p. 24.)

Opposed to state control of municipal functions; recommendation that the regulation of liquor licenses and control of police force be restored to city of Fall River. (Walsh. Address, p. 32–33.)

Recommends that power to approve or reject appointees of the mayor of Boston be withdrawn from the state Civil Service Commission. (Walsh. Address, p. 33.)

New Jersey. Opposed to legislation which compels municipal expenditure for higher salaries or for any other purpose without requiring consent of municipal governing bodies. (Fielder. First annual, p. 5.)

Pennsylvania. "The state should give municipalities wider freedom of opportunities to develop as they would." (Brumbaugh. Inaugural, p. 10.)

Vermont. Dangers of centralization pointed out; advantages of active responsibility of citizenship illustrated. (Gates. Inaugural message, pp. 4–5.)

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[1] Prepared by Miss Hasse.

Hotel Inspection.—*Washington.* Reduction and revision of fees recommended. (Lister. Second message, p. 47.)

Housing.—*California.* Commendation of report and work of state Commission on Immigration and Housing. "In various cities of the state it has presented the evils resulting from improper housing, and within the limits of the law has endeavored to correct these evils." (Johnson. Second biennial message, p. 18.)

Michigan. Recommended that present legislature enact a housing law of state-wide application. (Ferris. Second inaugural, p. 13.)

Juvenile Courts.—*Rhode Island.* Proposed Juvenile Court Act favorably commended. (Beekman. First annual, p. 17.)

Non-partisanship.—*California.* Effective operation of non-partisan city electoral system; recent adoption of same system by counties; recommendation that state officials be elected without party designation of any sort. (Johnson. Second biennial message, p. 28–29.)

Nebraska. Reference to general approval of non-partisan judiciary law enacted two years ago. Similar law recommended for nomination of school superintendents, county and state. (Morehead. Message, p. 13.)

Oklahoma. Constitutional amendment providing for non-partisan nominations recommended. (Williams. Inaugural, p. 22.)

Washington. Passage by present legislature of a non-partisan election law covering all county and city offices recommended. (Lister. Second message, p. 9.)

Public Utilities.—*California.* Under Public Utilities Act of March 23, 1913, many municipalities have voluntarily waived authority over public utilities and have thus come under jurisdiction of the public service commission. (Johnson. Second biennial message, p. 8.)

Recommendation that provision be made requiring municipalities to meet expenses necessary to determination of rates of their municipalities, under the constitutional amendment recently adopted giving fixing of rates in municipalities to public service commission. (*Ib.* p. 8.)

Illinois. Creation of local ancillary public utilities commission to take charge of and control intraurban municipal utilities of Chicago, recommended. (Dunne. Biennial, p. 9.)

Washington. Favors tendency to increase rather than to decrease power of state public service commission over public utilities within the boundaries of municipalities. (Lister. Second message, p. 48.)

Social Centers.—*Alabama.* Making of schools social centers for use of all the people in any direction that makes for social and civic betterment. (O'Neal. Quadrennial message, p. 77.)

Arizona. Conversion of school buildings into neighborhood houses is highly commendable. (Hunt. Message, p. 41.)

Michigan. Recommendation of extension of use of school equipment during vacations, evenings and Saturdays for benefit of those not of school age. (Ferris. Second inaugural, p. 14.)

Taxation. — *Massachusetts.* Recommended that tax commissioner be given power to (*a*) order revaluation of any city or town; (*b*) to cause state department taxation itself to make such revaluation; (*c*) to value as a whole the property and franchises of widely extended businesses and industries, such as railroad and telephone companies, and to assign to each city and town the proportion of the whole value to be taxed by such city or town, and the actual value at which it is to be assessed; (*d*) to equalize local assessments of property for purpose of establishing an equitable basis for assigning to each municipality its share of direct state tax. (Walsh. Address, p. 15.)

New Jersey. Average tax rate of New Jersey municipalities is 27 points higher in 1915 than in 1914. Objection on part of citizens to excessive expenses and inequality in assessment, chiefly due to improper method of selecting assessors. Suggests civil service appointment of assessors. (Fielder. First annual, p. 4.)

Terminal Improvements.—*California.* Review of San Francisco harbor development. (Johnson. Second biennial, p. 23.)

Pennsylvania. Physical improvements at water terminals in Philadelphia and San Francisco not a local matter. Vast improvements needed matters of state, city and federal co-operation. (Tener. Message, p. 21–22.)

General

Academy of Political Science in the City of New York. The Revision of the State Constitution. Part II. A–B. City and county government. [C.] Regulation of economic and social conditions. January, 1915. 215 pp. 8°.

Its Proceedings, vol. 5, no. 2.

Contents

A. Home Rule for Cities.

Pp. 1–38. Home rule for cities. By Howard L. McBain.

Pp. 39–56. A proposal for a revision of the municipal article. By Laurence A. Tanzer.

Pp. 57–60. Local government and the state constitution. By Martin H. Glynn.

Pp. 61–67. The city and the state constitution. By John Purroy Mitchel.

Pp. 68–79. Discussion on preceding by Delos F. Wilcox, Robert S. Binkerd and Walter T. Arndt.

B. County Government.

Pp. 80–86. The organization of county government. By George S. Buck.

Pp. 87–92. Discussion on preceding by H. S. Gilbertson and V. Everitt Macy.

American Academy of Political and Social Science. Annals. v. 57. Whole no. 146. January, 1915. Public Policies as to Municipal Utilities. vi, 357 pp.

Contents

Pp. 8–19. Fundamental planks in a public utility program. By Delos F. Wilcox.[1]

Pp. 20–32. Regulation of municipal utilities. By Nathaniel T. Guernsey.[1]

Pp. 33–44. Municipal lighting rates. By Ray Palmer.[1]

Pp. 45–49. Interlocking directorates. By Louis D. Brandeis.[1]

Pp. 54–61. Regulation of public utilities. By Carter H. Harrison.[1]

Pp. 62–71. Some present-day issues of public utility regulation. By Edward W. Bemis.[1]

Pp. 72–82. What certain cities have accomplished without state regulation. By Stiles P. Jones.[1]

Pp. 83–93. A constructive policy for public service corporations. By Charles Day.[1]

Pp. 94–110. What regulation must accomplish if it is to be permanent. By John M. Eshleman.[1]

Pp. 118–122. Local and state regulation of municipal utilities. By John Purroy Mitchel.[1]

Pp. 123–162. Advantages of state regulation. By Halford Erickson.[1]

Pp. 163–169. Distribution of functions between local and state regulation. By Milo R. Maltbie.[1]

Pp. 170–174. The case for home rule. [The killing of the home rule article in the Illinois public utility bill of 1913.] By Charles E. Merriam.[1]

Pp. 175–185. State and local regulation in Pennsylvania. By Ira W. Stratton.[1]

Pp. 188–193. Municipal ownership. By Newton D. Baker.[1]

Pp. 194–208. Municipal ownership—the testimony of foreign experience. By Frederic C. Howe.[1]

Pp. 209–227. Pasadena's municipal light and power plant. By C. Wellington Koiner.[1]

Pp. 228–245. South Norwalk's municipal electric works. By Albert E. Winchester.[1]

Pp. 246–253. The hydro-electric system in Toronto. By H. C. Hocken.[1]

Pp. 254–273. Some limitations and objections to municipal ownership. By Clarke M. Rosecrantz.[1]

Pp. 279–281. Municipal ownership and operation of water works. By M. N. Baker.[1]

Pp. 282–292. Why I believe in municipal ownership. By Robert Crosser.[1]

Pp. 305–312. Holding companies and the public welfare. By Charles F. Mathewson.[1]

Pp. 313–322. Public advantages of holding companies. By Francis T. Homer.[1]

Pp. 323–334. Public welfare and the holding company. By J. P. Goodrich.[1]

Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City. Municipal Research Monthly. no. 57, January, 1915.

No. 57, pp. 1–42. Next steps in the development of a budget procedure for the city of Greater New York. A report. Pp. 5–142.

This is the first issue of this publication in this form. Price $5.00 per annum.

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[1] Who the authors are: M. N. Baker is editor of Engineering News, New York City; N. D. Baker is mayor of Cleveland; E. W. Bemis is on Advisory board United States Valuation board, on Board supervising engineers, Chicago Traction, etc.; L. Brandeis well-known lawyer; R. Crosser is Member of Congress from Ohio; C. Day is of Day & Zimmermann, Philadelphia; H. Erickson is on Wisconsin Railroad Commission; J. M. Eshleman is president California Railroad Commission; J. P. Goodrich is Director National City Bank, Indianapolis; N. T. Guernsey is General Counsel A. T. & T. Co.; C. H. Harrison is mayor of Chicago; H. C. Hocken is Mayor of Toronto; F. T. Homer is of Bertron, Griscom & Co., New York City; F. C. Howe is Commissioner of Immigration, New York City; S. P. Jones is secretary Voters' League, Minneapolis; M. R. Maltbie is Member Public Service Commission, 1st District, New York State; C. F. Mathewson is of Counsel, Consolidated Gas Co., New York City; C. E. Merriam is Professor Political Science, University of Chicago; J. P. Mitchel is Mayor of New York City; R. Palmer is Commissioner of Gas and Electricity, Chicago; C. M. Rosecrantz is of General Counsel, New York City Milwaukee Electric Railway and Light Co.; I. W. Stratton is Mayor of Reading; D. F. Wilcox is Franchise Expert, New York City; A. E. Winchester is of South Norwalk, Conn..

Chamber of Commerce, Rochester, N. Y. Some activities of the Rochester Chamber of Commerce during 1914. 49 pp. 8°.

City Club of Berkeley, Calif. Berkeley Civic Bulletin. [Monthly.] vol. 3, no. 5–7. December, 1914–February, 1915. pp. 69–122.

V. 3, no. 5. December, 1914. Pp. 69–92. Yearbook of the Club.

V. 3, no. 6. January, 1915. pp. 93–105. Civil service.

V. 3, no. 7. February, 1915. pp. 106–122. The jitney bus.

Illinois Municipal League. Proceedings of the first annual convention, October 14–15, 1914. 76 pp.

University of Illinois Bulletin, vol. 12, no. 20.

Contents: Municipal home rule, by Russell McCulloch Story, University of Illinois, pp. 15–27. The city manager plan, by L. D. Upson, Director Dayton, O., Bureau of Municipal Research, pp. 28–33. Municipal reference libraries, by Prof. John A. Fairlie, University of Illinois, pp. 34–39. Importance of the municipal engineer in an efficient city administration, by Ira O. Baker, University of Illinois, pp. 40–49. The department of public service, by Montague Ferry, Commissioner of Public Service, Chicago, pp. 50–62. Disposal of municipal sewage, by Paul Hansen, Engineer Illinois State Water Survey, pp. 63–67. Public parks for the small city, by Frederick N. Evans, Instructor in Landscape Design, University of Illinois, pp. 68–76.

Madison (Wisc.). Board of Commerce. Madison "The Four Lake City." 1914. 63 pp., illus. 8°.

A handsome, beautifully illustrated booklet, sold at 50 cents the copy.

Niel (Edward A.). Commerce of the port of Rochester (Charlotte) N. Y. 1914. 13 pp. 8°.

Address delivered at the Great Lakes Waterways Conference, Chicago, November, 1914. Mr. Niel is a member of the Lower River and Harbor Committee of the Rochester Chamber of Commerce.

Accounting

Powers (L. G.). Classifications of municipal expenditures in budgets and accounts and the purposes which they subserve. (Journal of Accountancy, February, 1915, pp. 118–136.)

Mr. Powers is well-known as former chief statistician of the United States Census Bureau, as well as in connection with the annual volume "Statistics of Cities," published by the Census Bureau.

Auditoriums

Chicago (Ill.), Mayor. Communication of Mayor Harrison to City Council recommending provision for submission to the people in the spring election of a proposition for a bond issue to construct a municipal convention hall. (Chicago Commerce January 22, 1915, p. 35.)

Chicago Association of Commerce. Announcement of project for a city auditorium near the municipal harbor with a capacity of 31,000. illus. (Chicago Daily Tribune, January 13, 1915. About 1,200 words.)

Town hall of the nation; why Chicago must have a municipal auditorium; an appeal to the mayor, city council and voters of Chicago. With maps and drawings. 20 pp. 8°.

Smulski (John F.). "Town Hall of the Nation"; Association's well-matured project to provide Chicago with a convenient meeting house for its own people, and adequate facilities as the country's true convention center. (Chicago Commerce, January 15, 1915, pp. 16–23, illus.)

Cincinnati's Municipal Convention Hall. (Chicago Commerce, February 19, 1915, p. 9, illus.)

Budgets

Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City. Next steps in the development of a budget procedure for the City of Greater New York. (Municipal Research, January, 1915, pp. 5–142.)

A report of the Bureau to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of New York City, pursuant to a recommendation of the Tax-Budget Committee of the Board.

Chamber of Commerce of Pittsburgh. Pittsburgh's taxation, city, county, education. Addresses to the Chamber by Hon. Robert Garland, Hon. R. J. Cunningham and N. R. Criss, Esq. 46 pp. 8°.

These addresses were delivered before members of the Chamber at the regular weekly luncheons held December 1, 8 and 15, 1914, viz. "The city budget," by Hon. Robert Garland, chairman of the Finance Committee of the Pittsburgh City Council, delivered December 1, pp. 1–18. "The Preparation of a budget for Allegheny County," by Hon. R. J. Cunningham, Controller of Allegheny County, delivered December 8, pp. 19–29. "Taxation and the public schools of Pittsburgh," by N. R. Criss, Esq., chairman of the Finance and Administration Committee, Board of Public Education of Pittsburgh, delivered December 15, pp. 31–46.

GARLAND (ROBERT). The city budget. 1914. 18 pp. 8°.

An address by the Hon. Robert Garland, chairman of the Finance Committee of the Pittsburgh Council, to the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce on December 1, 1914.

Building Construction

See Elevators; Fire Prevention.

MCANENY (GEORGE). Striking the death knell of unchecked skyscraper construction. (Real Estate Bulletin, February, 1915, pp. 11–14, 18.)

Publication Office Real Estate Bulletin is 115 Broadway, New York City. Price per copy, 35 cents. Mr. McAneny is President of the Board of Aldermen of New York City.

Building Inspection

CONFERENCE COMMITTEE OF REAL ESTATE AND ALLIED ORGANIZATIONS IN NEW YORK CITY. Plan for simplifying building inspection presented to the State Factory Commission. (Real Estate Bulletin (N. Y.), January, 1915, pp. 22–24.)

Charters

In November, 1914, California adopted a constitutional amendment by a vote of 285,338 for and 226,679 against, concerning the adoption and amendment of municipal charters. The amendment on the incorporation of municipalitics was adopted by a vote of 284,757 for and 214,312 against.

The state of Missouri, in November, 1914, rejected a constitutional amendment by a vote of 140,475 for and 290,562 against "to simplify charter changes for cities."

North Carolina, in November, 1914, rejected the constitutional amendment to prevent granting of special charters to towns, cities and incorporated villages, by a vote of 53,887 for and 63,027 against.

DETROIT (MICH.). Amendments to the city charter to be submitted to the electors of Detroit November 3, 1914. 24 pp. 8°.

LOS ANGELES (CAL). Proposed amendments to the charter of the city to be submitted December 31, 1914. 6 leaves. 12°.

Amendments were defeated.

MASSACHUSETTS. Charters, Joint Special Committee on. Report. January, 1915. 71 pp. 8°. (Senate doc. 254.)

SALEM (OREGON). Proposed charter amendments submitted to the legal voters of Salem, at the general election to be held December 7, 1914. 32 pp. 8°.

TORRINGTON (CONN.). Proposed charter for the city of Torrington. November, 1914. 40 pp. 8°.

City Planning

ADAMS (THOMAS). Town planning and housing in Canada. (Canadian Municipal Journal, February, 1915, pp. 60–63.)

BEER (G. FRANK). A plea for city planning organization. 1914. (Canada. Conservation Commission. 5th annual report, 1914, pp. 108–116, illus.)

Mr. Beer is President of the Toronto Housing Company.

BURLAND (JEFFREY H.). Preliminary report of the Committee on Town Planning Legislation, 1914. (Canada. Conservation Commission. 5th annual report, 1914, pp. 121–125.)

CANADIAN TOWN PLANNING AND HOUSING LAWS. [Text of such laws in the provinces of Quebec, Ontario and Alberta.] (Canada. Conservation Commission. 5th annual report. 1914, pp. 239–258.)

CAPES (WILLIAM P.). Understanding city planning movement. 4 pp. 8°.

Reprinted from New York Evening Post, December 31, 1914.

GARDEN CITIES AND TOWN PLANNING. n. s. v. 4. no. 12. December, 1914. pp. 263–282.

A Greater London Plan. Town Planning in Relation to the Community. By W. R. Davidge. The Madrid Lineal City. Housing the Dispossessed. By G. Kyffin-Taylor.

HARSCH (P. A.). What city planning means to realty interests. (National Real Estate Journal, February, 1915, pp. 73–75.

KIMBALL (THEODORA). A brief survey of recent city-planning reports in the United States. Harrisburg, 1915. 32 pp. 4°.

Reprinted from Landscape Architecture, January, 1915.

KISSAN (B. W.). Report on town-planning enactments in Germany. [Calcutta, 1913.] 31 pp., 1 map. F°.

SHURTLEFF (FLAVEL). Letter embodying references to legislation authorizing the appointment of official city planning boards or commissions. (American City, February, 1915, p. 94.)

SOMERVILLE (MASS.). Planning board. First annual report, 1914.

WATROUS (R. B.). The relation of real estate men to city planning. (National Real Estate Journal, January 15, 1915, pp. 7–13.)

Civics

COLONIAL DAMES OF ILLINOIS. A primer of civics. Designed for the guidance of the immigrant. [Polish Edition.] Written by J. J. Zmrhal. 1914. 63 pp. 8°.

Part 1. The rights and duties of a citizen as provided for in national and state constitutions and the city charter.

Part 2. Salient points in American history.

KIERNAN (FRANK). The great adventure of democracy. Preparing for it by self-government in the public schools. (Craftsman. vol. 26, pp. 626–630. September, 1914.)

Good results from student self-government.

SWAIN (JOSEPH). The relation of the teacher to American citizenship. (American Primary Teacher. vol. 33, pp. 86–87. November, 1914.)

WOOD (MARY I.). Civic activities of women's clubs. (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. vol. 56, pp. 78–87. November, 1914.)

Civil Service

A bill is before the Legislature of Minnesota repealing chapter 105, General Laws of 1913, creating civil service commissions in cities of the first class.

JAMES (HERMAN G.). A model civil service code for Texas cities. December 20, 1914. 16 pp. 8°.

University of Texas. Bulletin 378. Municipal Research Series no. 5.

LOS ANGELES CO. (CAL.), CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION AND BUREAU OF EFFICIENCY. First annual report for the year ended June 30, 1914. Including organization charts. 6 pp., 19 charts. 4°.

Civic Leagues

ALABAMA MUNICIPAL LEAGUE. Constitution. 1914. 2 leaves.

The league was organized on December 4, 1914. The secretary is George Jacob Davis, Jr., University, Ala.

Congestion of Population

MASSACHUSETTS. HOMESTEAD COMMISSION. Teaching agriculture to families as a relief for unemployment and congestion of population. January, 1915. 8 pp. 8°.

Its Bulletin no. 3.

Coroners

NEW YORK CITY. Commissioner of Accounts. Report on special examination of the accounts and methods of the office of coroner in the city of New York. 1915. 82 pp. 4°.

Courts

BOSTON (MASS.) MUNICIPAL COURT. Rules of the court. 1914. 35 pp.

Address: Clerk of the Municipal Court, Boston, Mass.

PHILADELPHIA (PENN.). MUNICIPAL COURT. First annual report for the year ended December 31, 1914. 51 pp. 4°.

Dead Animals

ST. LOUIS (MO.). PUBLIC LIBRARY. MUNICIPAL REFERENCE BRANCH. Removal of dead animals in cities. Ordinances and practices in nine large cities. (Municipal Journal, January 21, 1915, pp. 64–65.)

Compiled by Andrew Linn Bostwick, Librarian.

Debt

North Dakota State Tax Association. Bulletin 9. January, 1915. Municipal debt in North Dakota. The debt history of the city of Grand Forks. 2 leaves. 8°.

Elections

Missouri. Commission appointed to consider the revision of election laws applicable to cities having registration in the state of Missouri. Report, January 6, 1915. 48 pp. 4°.

No copies available for distribution. Supply exhausted.

Orban (O.). La législation des elections communales en Belgique. (Revue du Droit Publique et de la Science Politique en France et a l'Étranger. v. 31, no. 3–4. Juillet–Dec. 1914, p. 681–698.)

M. Orban is professor of public and administrative law in the University of Liège, and was a leading member of the Commission of Thirty-one charged with the study of reforms in the provincial and municipal electoral systems of Belgium.

Elevators

Kirkus (Alfred R.). Safety movement extended to include vertical travel [elevators]. (Real Estate Bulletin, February, 1915, pp. 33–36.)

Real Estate Bulletin, 115 Broadway, New York City. Price 35 cents per copy.

Excess Condemnation

Rolland (Louis). Les tendances nouvelles en matière d'expropriation pour cause d'utilité publique. (Revue du Droit Publique et de la Science Politique en France et a l'Étranger. v 31 no. 3–4. Juillet–Déc., 1914, p. 659–664.)

For a second time (see Revue etc. 1912, p. 330) the author reviews the tendencies in the modern practice of excess condemnation in France. The present review is made following the passage of the law of April 21, 1914, which radically modifies the fundamental law of May 3, 1841.

de Selding (Hermann.). How the "Law's Delay" adds to the cost of condemning real property. (Real Estate Bulletin, February, 1915, pp. 15–17.)

Real Estate Bulletin, 115 Broadway, New York City. Price 35 cents per copy.

Explosives

Detroit (Mich.). Ordinances. Text of new gasoline ordinance affecting garages which becomes effective January 1, 1915. (Horseless Age, vol. 34, pp. 711–712. November 11, 1914.)

Finance

Birmingham (Ala.). Report of the sub-committee to investigate expenditures of the city of Birmingham. January, 1915. 74 pp. 8°.

——. Report of sub-committee on permanent plan of relief for the city of Birmingham. 15 pp. 8°.

Burke (Thomas). How the minority spends the money. (Stone and Webster Public Service Journal, February, 1915, pp. 87–92.)

Extract from an address at a meeting of the League of Pacific Municipalities at Seattle. A review of the vote upon important municipal undertakings during the past five years to illustrate the contention of indifference to civic welfare and neglect of plain civic duties.

Civic League of Cleveland, O. The Municipal Bulletin, December, 1914. City finance number. Cleveland's financial condition. A plain statement of facts. 16 pp. 8°.

A comparison of the total and per capita expenditures and per cent of total payments for police and fire protection respectively, sanitation, conservation of health, charities and corrections, recreation, education, libraries and highways in Cleveland, St. Louis, Boston, Baltimore, Pittsburgh and Detroit.

Hopkins (Scott.) New opportunities for trust companies as fiscal agents for municipalities. (Trust Companies. January, 1915. pp. 42–45.)

How the "Topeka Plan" originated. Mr. Hopkins is President of the Prudential Trust Company of Topeka, Kan.

Los Angeles (Calif.). Auditor's office. Miscellaneous information as to Los Angeles city and county 1914–1915. Comparative tables of receipts and disbursements. Data relating to bonds, water, valuations, taxes, etc. (pp. 177–232 of auditor's annual report, 1913–14.)

The majority of the tables are cumulative from 1909. This very useful compilation has been a feature of the Los Angeles auditor's report for several years, and might very well be emulated by officials of other cities.

OHIO. Finances of Municipalities, Committee for Investigation of. Report. February, 1915. 41 pp.

ST. LOUIS (MO.). COMPTROLLER. City finances. Special report of the comptroller. December 17, 1914. 38 pp. 8°.

Increased cost of conducting the business of the municipality during the past few years. Accompanied by exhibits 1–17, an exceedingly valuable series of cumulative tables of classified receipts and disbursements, rates of taxation, bond issues, assessed valuation, etc.

Fire Departments

ANONYMOUS. Yonkers fire department. 3000 words. (Fire and Water Engineering, January 20, 1915.)

BOOTH (GEORGE W.). Public fire departments. 6000 words. (Fireman's Herald, January 2, 1915.)

Organization here and abroad; salaries; equipment, etc. Mr. Booth is chief engineer, National Board of Fire Underwriters.

NATIONAL BOARD OF FIRE UNDERWRITERS. Report on the Dayton Fire department. 1500 words. (Fire and Water Engineering. December 23, 1914.)

YOUNGSTOWN (O.). Fire Department. Youngstown fire department past and present. Published by members of the Youngstown fire department. 1914. 174 pp., illus. 8°.

Fire Prevention

ANONYMOUS. Factory construction in large cities. 1500 words. (Safety Engineering. (January, 1915.)

Modern improvements in respect to fire prevention which have been adopted in factory construction.

BATES (PUTNAM A.). The fire alarm system of the City of New York. (The American Underwriter, December, 1914, pp. 175–183.)

Mr. Putnam is chief of the Bureau of Fire Alarm Telegraph, New York Fire Department.

——. The fire alarm system of New York City as fire fighters see it. (Real Estate Bulletin (N. Y.). January, 1915, pp. 15–21, illus.).

FIRE PREVENTION RULES. (American School Board Journal, vol. 49, pp. 17–18, 60–61. November, 1914.)

The example of New York City.

Housing

See also above, City Planning.

BACHI (RICCARDO). La questione economica della abitazioni. Milan, 1914. 83 p.

Price, L. 0. 90. Prof. Bachi is editor of the annual publication "L'Italia Economica." The little volume here listed is divided into two parts, viz. a general discussion of housing and illustrations of modern housing principles. In addition there are two appendices, viz., a summary of Italian legislation on workingmen's dwellings and the progress made in various Italian cities in providing sanitary dwellings.

BEER (G. FRANK). Work of the Toronto Housing Co. 1914. (Canada, Conservation Commission. 5th annual report, 1914, pp. 116–121, illus.)

BORLAND (WILLIAM P.). The alley slums of Washington. (Congressional Record, September 17, 1914, pp. 16725–16734.)

Speech in the House of Representatives on September 14, 1914, in favor of the so-called alley bill (H. R. 13219, 63 congress). Mr. Borland is democratic representative from Missouri.

BUCHANAN (FRANK). Housing of working people in foreign countries. (Congressional Record, September 22, 1914, pp. 16962–16966.)

Speech in House of Representatives in favor of House resolution 604 calling upon the Secretary of Labor for information concerning public aid for home owning and housing of working people in foreign countries. Mr. Buchanan is democratic representative from Illinois.

CALIFORNIA. COMMISSION OF IMMIGRATION AND HOUSING. Report on unemployment. December 9, 1914. 73 pp. 8°.

GREAT BRITAIN. ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON RURAL COTTAGES. Report of the committee appointed to consider and advise the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries on plans, models, specifications, and methods of construction for rural cottages and outbuildings. London, 1914. iii, 96 pp. 8°. illus. Price 1 s. 6 d.

Holland (Bernard). The housing question in towns. (Charity Organization Review (London), December, 1914, pp. 381–393.)

K. P. Die Zählung der Wohnungen in Wien am 20 Mai, 1914. (Mitheilungen der Zentralstelle für Wohnungsreform in Oesterreich. Dezember, 1914, pp. 16–20.)

Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association. The housing problem in Minneapolis. A preliminary investigation made for the Committee on Housing. 1914. 111 pp., illus. 8°.

Müller (Johannes). Die Unmöglichkeit eines allgemeinen normalen Leerwohnungssatzes. (Jahrbücher für Nationalökonomie u. Statistik. January, 1915, p. 90–100.)

A study of the normal proportion of unoccupied houses in various German cities.

Regnault (Pierre). Les défectuosités de l'habitation bourgeoise a Paris. (La Réforme Sociale, 1914, no. 93–94, November 1, 16. pp. 443–460.)

A report made by M. Regnault, architect, at the annual meeting of the Société d'Économie Sociale on June 8, 1914.

Rountree (Benjamin S.) and A. C. Pigou. Lectures on housing. Manchester: University Press, 1914. 70 pp. 8°.

The Warburton lectures for 1914, Manchester University lectures, no. 18.

Shannon (W. Lane). Housing in New Jersey. 8 pp. 8°.

Reprinted from "New Jersey," Jersey City, 1914, pp. 105–111.

Sternberg (George M.). Small houses within the city limits for unskilled wage-earners. December, 1914. 16 pp. 8°.

National Housing Assoc. Publication no. 27. Price 5 cents.

"Jitney Bus"

Control of the jitney bus business in Minneapolis, or elsewhere in the state of Minnesota by the city council is provided for in a bill offered in the Senate on February 25, 1915, by Senators Wallace and Westlake, of Minneapolis. The bill provides that no bus service may be established without license by the council and that all persons engaging in the business must file a bond of $25,000. The bill also authorizes the city to collect a wheel tax.

City Club of Berkeley. Berkeley Civic Bulletin. v. 3, no. 7. February, 1915. The jitney bus. pp. 106–122.

Hichborn's Legislative Bulletin. Synopsis of hearings before California Senate and Assembly Committees on Revenue and Taxation relative to the "jitney bus." January 30, 1915, pp. 2–3.

Jitney (The) in Many Cities. (Municipal Journal, February 18, 1915. pp. 229–230.)

Review of operations in Denver, Austin, Toledo, New Orleans, Oklahoma City, Tulsa, Okla., Indianapolis, Louisville, Oakland and Fort Worth.

Jitney (The). From financial standpoint.—repr. Railway Review. (Chicago Commerce, February 5, 1915, p. 23.)

Rapid Rise of the "Jitney." Problems of regulation of the autobus as public vehicle of increasing vogue—repr. New York Times. (Chicago Commerce, February 5, 1915, p. 23.)

Land Registration

Practically ignored since its enactment, 1908, the New York State Torrens law is now engaging considerable attention by reason of amendments introduced at the instance of the Real Estate Board of New York. Comment of a valuable nature on the New York law and the activities now surrounding it by Alfred G. Reeves was printed in the New York Evening Post of February 27, 1915.

Stutzbach (Martin H.). The modern land registration system and why it should be adopted in Pennsylvania. December 17, 1914. 41 pp. 8°.

A paper read by Mr. Stutzbach, of the Philadelphia Bar, senior counsel of the Building Association League of Pennsylvania and member of the Philadelphia Real Estate Board, at a meeting of the latter board.

Municipal Bonds

The state of California in November 1914, by a vote of 306,915 for and 206,479 against, adopted a constitutional amendment authorizing any county, municipality, irrigation district or other public corporation, issuing bonds under the laws of the state, to make same and interest thereon payable at any place or places within or outside of United States, and in domestic or foreign money, designated therein. In November, 1914, the state of Colorado rejected a constitutional amendment by a vote of 38,589 for and 65,206 against, authorizing cities and towns to issue 60 year bonds.

The Journal of Commerce of New York of March 1, 1915, in commenting on municipal bond issues of the first two months of 1915, quotes a table compiled by the Financial and Commercial Chronicle showing the output of permanent municipal bond issues in February 1892–1914, and for the first two months combined for the same period.

ANONYMOUS. Review of the Canadian municipal bond situation for 1914. 1200 words. (Municipal world, January, 1915.)

REED (ROBERT R.). Case of municipal bonds. Their legality defined in answer to statements in recent "Analysis of Securities" article. (New York Evening Post, January 9, 1915.)

——. Handicaps to legal bond issues. (American City, January, 1915, pp. 11–14.)

STANBERRY (H.). Iowa municipal bonds. (American Municipalities, February, 1915. v. 28, pp. 173–176.)

UNITED STATES MORTGAGE AND TRUST COMPANY. A compilation of the laws of various states on registration and transfer of municipal bonds. 1914. 41 pp.

Municipal Consolidation

In November, 1914, Oregon adopted a constitutional amendment submitted by the legislature permitting an enactment of a general law authorizing adjoining cities to consolidate, on vote of their electors; vote 96,116 for and 77,671 against. California acted upon two consolidation measures in the form of initiated constitutional amendments in November, 1914. One, relating to city and county consolidation and annexation with consent of annexed territory was rejected by a vote of 248,112 for and 318,224 against. The other, consolidation of city and county and limited annexation of contiguous territory, was adopted by a vote of 293,901 for and 287,185 against. Oregon, in November, 1914, rejected a constitutional amendment referred by the legislature permitting city and county governments to be consolidated upon vote of the people interested; vote 77,392 for and 103,194 against.

Municipal Forestry

In 1913 (chapter 211, Laws of 1913) the legislature of Minnesota passed an act to authorize and encourage the creation of municipal forests and to provide for the levy of a tax therefor. Without repealing this measure the present legislature, early in 1915, was asked to consider another forestry bill drawn by State Senator Dunn of St. Paul. This new bill is designed to apply to the cities of St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Duluth. The only distinction between the two bills, aside from the classification of cities, is that the proposed bill puts the power to levy a tax for forest purposes in the governing body of the municipality instead of submitting it to a vote of the citizens. The reason for the proposed change was to prevent the cumbersome method of submitting the matter to a vote before action could be taken.

Municipal Government

WÖLBLING (P.). Die Organisation der Grossgemeinden in Deutschland. (Archiv für Rechts-u. Wirtschafts Philosophie.. October, 1914, p. 107–120.)

Article is to be continued. The author is counselor to the mayor of Berlin. The Germans specify as Grossgemeinden (great cities) all those cities having over 300,000 inhabitants.

City Manager Plan

JAMES (HERMAN G.). What is the city manager plan? [With a bibliography] 1915. 25 pp. 8°.

Bulletin of the University of Texas, 1915, No. 11. February 20, 1915. Municipal research series No. 11.

UPSON (L. D.) The city manager plan. (Proceedings Illinois Municipal League. October, 1914, pp. 28–33.)

Commission Manager Plan

DYKSTRA (C. A.). Commission manager plan of city government. (Kansas Municipalities, January, 1915, vol. 1, pp. 13–14.)

McLEOD (DONALD F.). A year of commission-manager government at Lakeland, Fla. 900 words. (Engineering News, December 3, 1914.)

WAITE (HENRY M.). The commission-manager form of government and its relation to the engineering profession. 7500 words. (Journal of the Boston Society of Civil Engineers, January, 1915.)

Mr. Waite, as is well known, is city manager of Dayton, O.

Municipal Home Rule

The state of Wisconsin, in November, 1914, rejected a constitutional amendment giving two the people of cities and villages the right of home rule; vote 82,247 for and 138,307 against.

In November, 1914, Missouri rejected two home rule measures, both referred laws, viz., a general home rule bill lost by a vote of 134,449 for and 303,757 against; and a police home rule bill lost by a vote of 131,382 for and 306,942 against.

McBain (Howard L.). Home rule for cities. (Proceedings Academy Political Science in City of New York, January, 1915, pp. 1–38.)

Merriam (Charles E.). The case for home rule. [The killing of the home rule article in the Illinois public utility bill of 1913.] (Annals American Academy Political and Social Science, January, 1915, pp. 170–174.)

Story (Russell M.). Municipal home rule. (Proceedings Illinois Municipal League, October, 1914, pp. 15–27.)

Witt (P.). Municipal home rule. (Kansas Municipalities, January, 1915, vol. 1, pp. 1–7.)

Municipal Ownership

See also Public Utilities.

Baker (Newton D.). Municipal ownership. (Annals American Academy Political Social Science, January, 1915, pp. 188–193.)

Crosser (Robert). Why I believe in municipal ownership. (Annals American Academy Political and Social Science, January, 1915, pp. 282–292.)

Howe (Frederick C.). Municipal ownership—the testimony of foreign experience. (Annals American Academy Political and Social Science, January, 1915, pp. 194–208.)

Rosecrantz (Clark M). Some limitations and objections to municipal ownership. (Annals American Academy Political and Social Science, January, 1915, pp. 254–273.)

Asphalt Plants

Anonymous. Camden's municipal asphalt plant. 2,000 words, illus. (Municipal Journal, February 4, 1915, pp. 127–129.)

Cost, etc.

Auditoriums

See that title.

Garage.

Cardwell (Kenneth C.). Municipal garage at Cincinnati. illus. (Municipal Journal, January 7, 1915, pp. 1–3.)

Lighting Plants

Anonymous. Fort Wayne's street lighting plant. 2500 words. (Public service, February, 1915.)

——. Power installation at Yorktown, Sask. 2600 words, illus. (Canadian Engineer, January 14, 1915.)

First municipal light and power plant in Canada to be served by oil engine unit.

——. Detroit's municipal lighting plant. 4000 words, illus. (Power, December 15, 1914.)

History of the plant, operation and detailed cost data.

Ballard (Frederick W.). Design and operation of the Cleveland municipal electric light plant. 4000 words, illus. (Power, January 19, 1915.)

Jones (A. C.). Opelousas' municipal lighting plant. 1000 words, illus. (Power, January 12, 1915.)

Koiner (C. Wellington) Pasadena's municipal light and power plant. (Annals American Academy Political and Social Science, January, 1915, pp. 209–227.)

Saginaw (Mich.). Reports to council upon municipal electric plant and proposal of Saginaw Power Company. October 17, 1914. 15 pp.

Palmer (Ray). Municipal lighting rates. (Annals American Academy of Political and Social Science, January, 1915, pp. 33–44.)

Winchester (Albert E.). South Norwalk's municipal electric works. (Annals American Academy Political and Social Science, January, 1915, pp. 228–245.)

Lodging Houses

St. Louis (Mo.). Ordinances. Ordinance 27754 to establish a muncipal lodging house. December 19, 1914. 3 pp.

Markets

All cities and towns in Massachusetts having 10,000 or more inhabitants will have public markets, providing the Legislature upholds the act that the Committee on Agriculture submitted to the House on February 24, 1915. Section 1 of the proposed act authorizes any city to purchase and maintain public markets under rules and regulations to be prepared by the State Board of Agriculture. The second section stipulates that any municipality that does not maintain a public market shall be required to set apart within one year one or more streets or squares which may be used by farmers desiring to sell farm and garden products directly to the consumers.

ANONYMOUS. Chattanooga's municipal markets. illus. (Municipal Journal, January 7, 1915, pp. 12–13.)

CIVIC LEAGUE OF ST. LOUIS. MUNICIPAL MARKETS COMMITTEE. Public markets as a means of reducing the cost of living; a new movement in American cities and new in St. Louis. folder.

Address 911 Locust Street, St. Louis. This folder is only a brief outline of the St. Louis market situation, the complete typewritten report of which will be sent on receipt of 25 cents.

SIMS (R. PERCY). The Maissonneuve public market: its construction and equipment. 1800 words, illus. (Contract Record, January 6, 1915.)

Real Estate

NEW YORK CITY. BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL INVESTIGATION AND STATISTICS. Record of real estate owned by the City of New York contained in a report by the comptroller to the commissioners of the sinking fund. December 31, 1914. 181 pp. 8°.

Sanatoria

HOW THE CITY OF CHICAGO IS SOLVING THE TUBERCULOSIS PROBLEM. (Chicago Daily Tribune, February 16, 1915.)

Full page illustrated story of the dedication of the 42 buildings constituting the cottage system for handling the tuberculosis problem at the new Chicago municipal hospital.

SACHS (THEODORE B.). Chicago's plan for municipal control of tuberculosis. (Survey, January 30, 1915, pp. 461–462.)

Water Works

BAKER (M. N.). Municipal ownership and operation of water works. 1200 words. (Engineering News, December 3, 1914; Annals American Academy Political and Social Science, January, 1915, pp. 279–281.)

Municipal Universities

An instructive article on this subject appeared as an editorial in the New York Evening Post of January 11, 1914.

DABNEY (CHARLES W.). The movement for the modern city university in Germany. (School and Society, January 30, 1915 (vol. 1, no. 5), pp. 150–154.)

KOLBE (P. R.). The history of the municipal university movement in Akron. (Transaction Forty-Fourth Annual Meeting Ohio College Association, pp. 34–38.)

Organization Charts

See also above under Civil Service.

SOUTHERN COMMERCIAL CONGRESS, WASHINGTON, D. C. BUREAU OF ECONOMICS AND PUBLIC EFFICIENCY. Organization charts prepared by Le Roy Hodges of present and suggested form of county government for Virginia counties, and present and suggested plan of city government for Petersburg, Va. (The Survey, February 13, 1915, p. 540.)

Pageants

[CONANT, MRS. ISABELLA.] Pageant of the Charles River, September 19, 1914. Wellesley, Mass.: Maugus Printing Co., 1914. 8 pp. 8°.

Price 10 cents.

RUTLAND (MASS.). The pageant of Rutland. In celebration of its two hundredth anniversary. Presented at Rutland, August 10 and 11, 1914. 4 leaves. 8°.

Pensions

NEW YORK CITY. BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL INVESTIGATION AND STATISTICS. Report relative to proposed legislation providing pensions to widows with children [as applied to New York City]. Submitted to William A. Prendergast, comptroller, January 25, 1915. 26 pp. 4°.

Playgrounds

DANNER (VERNICE E.). The school system of Guymon, Oklahoma. A splendid example of practical education. (Progress, vol. 4, pp. 43–52, October, 1914.)

The playground movement at Guymon.

WEBB (WARFIELD). Playground for a small city. 1400 words, illus. (Municipal Engineering, December, 1914.)

Police

Anonymous. Building and equipment of Calgary's new police headquarters. 1000 words, illus. (Contract Record, December 23, 1914.)

Great Britain. Royal Irish Constabulary and Dublin Metropolitan Police Committee. Appendix to the report of the committee of inquiry, 1914. London, 1914. v, 386 pp. F°.

Price 3 s. 2½ d. Statistical data on constabulary pensions 1904–1913; rates of pay 1838–1913; wastage (i. e. resignations and retirements) in the force, 1838–1913; statement of total beginning and total maximum pay for constabulary services in England and Wales and Scotland city and county forces respectively (p. 378); and (pp. 380–381) comparative table showing total force, population, acreage, rateable valuation, nature of establishment superior to sergeant, and average acreage to each superintendent for Edinburgh, Glasgow, Liverpool, London Metropolitan District, Dublin Metropolitan District and Belfast.

Niceforo (Alfredo). L'Enseignement de la Police Judiciaire Scientifique dans les Universites Italiennes. (Bulletin de I' Union Internationale de Droit Pénal. 1914. v. 21, pp. 559–574.)

St. Louis Public Library. Municipal Reference Branch. Municipal Police Departments—their relative size. (Municipal Engineering, February, 1915, pp. 140–141; American City, February, 1915, p. 154.)

Compiled by Andrew Linn Bostwick, librarian. Also issued as a mimeographed separate.

Population

See also Congestion of Population.

Bachi (Riccardo). Influenze demografiche della grande città sul territorio circostante. (Giornale degli Economisti, Dicembre, 1914, pp. 389–392.)

A study of the influence of metropolitan communities on the dynamics of the population of the surrounding territory. This study, made in the year 1911, relates specifically to Turin, Italy.

Mercklin. Die Psychosen unserer Kleinstädtischen Bevölkerung. (Zeitschrift für die gesammte Neurologie u. Psychiatrie. Bd. 25, Heft 1–2. 1914.)

Meuriot (Paul). Du critérium adopté pour la définition de la population urbaine. (Journal de la Société de Statistique de Paris, October, 1914, pp. 418–430.)

An examination into the interpretation of the term "urban population" as obtaining in the various European countries.

Port Development

Stevenson (Frederick B.). Brooklyn League's vigorous campaign for world's greatest harbor in Jamaica Bay. illus. (Brooklyn Daily Eagle, November 8, 1914.)

Public Defender

Early in the year Portland, Ore., passed an ordinance creating the office of public defender.

New York Public Library. Municipal Reference Branch. [Selected references on the office of public defender.] (Municipal Reference Library Notes, January 27, 1915. v. 1, no. 14, pp. 62–63.)

Wood (Walton J.). The place of the public defender in the administration of justice. 1914. 32 pp. 8°.

Address before the California Bar Association at its fifth annual convention, November, 1914.

Mr. Walton is public defender of Los Angeles County, California.

Public Health

City Club of Chicago. Public Health exhibition, November 30, 1914, to January 16, 1915. Handbook and program. 31 pp. 8°.

Public Service

Cooke (Morris L.). The engineer's function in municipal development. 1900 words. (Canadian Engineer, January 28, 1915.)

Mr. Cooke is Director of Public Service in Philadelphia.

Reed (Thomas H.). The value of experts to a city government. 3000 words. (Municipal World, January, 1915.)

Public Utilities

See also below Street Railways.

Baum (Frank G.). The best control of public utilities. (Proceedings American Institute of Electrical Engineers, January, 1915, pp. 1–23.)

The author states as an axiom that "the best control of a public utility is that which develops an eagerness and ability on the part of the company to furnish the service, and an equal eagerness and ability on the part of the consumer to purchase the service." Five elements requisite for the development of this eagerness and ability on the part of the company and the consumers are stated and analyzed.

Sullivan (J. W.). Municipalization or a just regulation. A plea for the facts.

Address delivered at fifteenth annual meeting of the National Civic Federation, December 4, 1914. Seen only in press service form.

Purchasing Systems

A bill is before the present session of the Minnesota Legislature repealing chapter 211, General Laws of 1911, authorizing cities of the first class to establish and maintain a purchasing department.

New York City. Bureau of Standards. Monthly bulletin of tests made in laboratories conducted by the City of New York upon samples taken from deliveries of materials and supplies to city departments. 4°.

[No. 1.] October, 1914. 78 pp.

Spokane (Wash.). Ordinances. Ordinance no. C1841 relating to purchase and distribution of supplies. December 23, 1914. (Spokane Official Gazette, v. 4, pp. 3157–3158.)

Reports

Sands (Herbert R.). Departmental reporting for cities and counties. (American City, February, 1915, pp. 126–131.)

How annual reports for public use should be prepared and what they should contain. Mr. Sands is of the Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City.

Refuse Disposal

Anonymous. Recent refuse disposal practice. 4500 words. (Municipal Journal, December 10, 1914.)

Progress in reduction and destructor plants during past eight years.

——. Dust-proof refuse collection. 8 leaves. obl. 24°. illus.

Commercial booklet issued by H. Kastor, 125 E. 23d Street, New York City. Gratis.

Greeley (Samuel A.). Cost of collecting, hauling, transferring and transporting refuse materials. 2100 words. (Contract Record, December 2, 1914.)

Comparative cost of hauling by motor truck, trolley, barge and steam railway.

Spiegelberg (Mrs. Flora). European methods of garbage collection and incineration. illus. (Real Estate Bulletin, February, 1915, pp. 19–23.)

Article relates especially to Fuerth, Bavaria. Real Estate Bulletin, 115 Broadway, New York City. Price 35 cents per copy.

Young (George D.). Emergency garbage disposal in Chicago. 2500 words, illus. (Engineering Record, December 19, 1914.)

Mr. Young is commissioner of health of the City of Chicago.

Riots

Rolland (Louis). La loi du 16 avril 1914 sur la responsabilite des communes en cas d'émeutes. (Revue du Droit Publique et de la Science Politique en France et a l'Etranger. v. 31, no. 3–4. Juillet, Décembre, 1914, pp. 638–655.)

A careful study of the French law of April 16, 1914, on municipal responsibility in case of riots. The question involved has been under consideration ever since the incidents which occurred in Lyons in June, 1894, following the assassination of President Carnot. The article is accompanied by copious citations.

School Census

Chicago (Ill.). Board of Education. Report of the Chicago School Census of 1914, and annual report of the superintendent of compulsory education. 37 pp. 8°.

School Gardens

Joyce (Alice V.). School gardening in Portland, Oregon. (Nature-study Review, vol. 10, pp. 275–281, October, 1914.)

Schools

New York City. Memorandum submitted in behalf of the teachers in the employ of the Board of Education of the City of New York, against the proposal to require said teachers to render compulsory service in the summer schools and other summer activities conducted by said board. October 23, 1914. 43 pp. 8°.

Snow Removal

Steele (George D.). Snow removal in our leading cities. 7000 words. (Better Roads and Streets, February, 1915.)

Practices in use in some of the larger cities of the west.

Social Surveys

Hamilton (William B.). A student survey of Austin, Texas. A digest of University of Texas bulletin no. 273, entitled A social survey of Austin. Summarized by the Director of the Bureau of Municipal Research and Reference. February 25, 1915. 14 (1) pp.

Bulletin of the University of Texas. 1915, no. 12. Municipal Research Series no. 7. Copies may be had on application to the Bureau of Municipal Research and Reference of the University.

Trinity Church Men's Committee. A social survey of the Washington street district of New York City. October, 1914. 70 pp., illus. 8°.

Special Assessments

"A bill for an Act authorizing certain cities of the first class to determine what proportion of the cost of street paving shall be raised by special assessment upon abutting property and to levy a tax for the remainder" is before the Legislature of Minnesota of this session.

Street Cleaning

Anonymous. Milwaukee bureau of street sanitation. 3000 words. (Municipal Journal, December 17, 1914.)

Street cleaning and refuse collection and disposal; force employed and cost.

Anonymous.—Cincinnati street cleaning. (Municipal Journal, January 14, 1915, pp. 38–39.)

Description and result of an elaborate accounting system installed in 1912.

——. Street cleaning data. (Municipal Journal, January 14, 1915, pp. 37–39.)

Reports from 31 cities giving average amount of sweepings per unit area, cost per unit area and per unit volume of sweepings.

Rinkliff (George L.). Street cleaning by motor apparatus [in Springfield, Ohio]. (Municipal Journal, January 14, 1915, pp. 33–34.)

Street Lighting

See also above under Municipal Ownership.

Anonymous. Street lighting fixtures. 500 words, illus. (Municipal Engineering, January, 1915.)

Palmer (Ray). Street lighting rates and cost factors. 3000 words. (American City, December, 1914; Water and Gas Review, December, 1914.)

Mr. Palmer is commissioner of gas and electricity of the city of Chicago.

Street Railways

Great Britain. Railways Department. Tramways and light railways (street and road) and trackless trolley undertakings. London, 1915. 61 pp. F°. (House of Commons paper 463.)

Price 6 d. Return of street and road tramways and light railways authorized, amount of capital authorized, paid up and expended, length of line authorized, etc., etc.; same particulars relative to trackless trolley undertakings.

Mahon (W. D.) and L. D. Bland. Street railway workers of Europe. Report upon wages, hours of labor and conditions under municipal ownership and control. (American Federationist, December, 1914, pp. 1061–1076; Report of Executive Council American Federation of Labor to the 34th annual convention, 1914, pp. 186–204.)

Report submitted to the 1914 Philadelphia Convention of the American Federation of Labor by a special committee composed of Messrs. Mahon and Bland. Mr. Mahon has been president of the Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employes of America for nearly 20 years. Mr. Bland has for many years been editor of the Street Railwaymen's official journal of Chicago. Conclusions are in favor of the American system.

Williams (T. S.). Elevated railroad removal. Address before the Brooklyn Committee of One Hundred, December 7, 1914. 12 pp. 12°.

Mr. Williams is president of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company.

Streets

Tillson (George W.). European wood block pavements. 7000 words. (Better Roads and Streets, February, 1915.)

Describes methods of laying such pavements in all the larger cities of Europe.

Anonymous. Paving statistics of American cities. (Municipal Journal, February 4, 1915, pp. 133–159.)

Subways

Carr (O. E.). Underground survey of Cincinnati. 3000 words, illus. (Engineering Record, January 9, 1915.)

Dumond (Lewis A.). Pipe subways for the public utilities of Chicago. 1400 words. (Engineering Record, December 26, 1914.)

Abstract of a report.

Taxation

See also above under Budgets.

Anonymous. Municipal taxation for public purposes. (Columbia Law Review, February, 1915, pp. 179–181.)

Brief review, with liberal citations, of judicial divergence on constitutionality of taxation of municipal undertakings. The basis of the note is the recent case of Laughlin v. City of Portland (1914) 111 Me. 846, in which the right of a municipality to construct and operate a municipal fuel yard was held constitutional.

Civic League of Cleveland. Taxation in Ohio. Report of the League. 1915. 17 (1) pp. 1 leaf. 8°.

"In the investigation of the financial condition of the municipalities, the schools and other governmental agencies in Cuyahoga County, we have become clearly convinced that permanent relief from the present impoverished condition of our local governments will not be secured until Ohio's antiquated and unjust tax system is abolished, and a more modern, equitable and just system is established. For that reason we have prepared the following report on taxation. . . ." (Prefatory statement of the Executive Board of the League.)

Great Britain. Local Taxation Committee. Appendix to final report (England and Wales) of the departmental committee on local taxation. London, 1914. iv, 381 pp. F°.

Price 3s. 1d. Part 3 "Memoranda other than those submitted by witnesses," is especially useful. It comprises pages 198–381 of the appendix and contains the following: Notes of statutes, 1901–1913 (other than statutes relating to education), affecting the relations between imperial and local taxation in England and Wales; Statistics of expenditure and receipts of local authorities in respect of semi-national services; Growth of imperial taxation by G. L. Barstow; Exchequer contributions in aid of the cost of police, prepared by the Home Office; Report prepared in 1910 by W. J. Braithwaite and S. L. Minnis on the Prussian income tax and local taxation, Hamburg taxes, Strasburg taxes, Berne and Zurich taxes.

Harrison (Shelby M.). The disproportion of taxation in Pittsburgh. (Annals American Academy Political and Social Science, March, 1915, pp. 168–182.)

New York City. Finance Department. Report upon deficiencies in taxes. Presented by William A. Prendergast, comptroller, to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, October 29, 1914. 18 pp. 4°.

Pastoriza (J. J.). The Houston plan of taxation. (Annals American Academy Political and Social Science, March, 1915, pp. 194–197.)

Purdy (Lawson). Data for the economist [relative to the increase in the assessed values of real estate in New York City]. (New York Evening Post, December 31, 1914.)

Terminals

Anonymous. New Illinois central station and track elevation at Memphis. (Railway Age Gazette, January 29, 1915, pp. 179–181, illus.)

Passenger terminal for four railways and elimination of six grade crossings.

Schreiber (Martin). The new public service terminal at Newark, N. J. 19 pp. plans and illus. 8°.

A paper read by Mr. Schreiber, engineer maintenance of way, Public Service Railway Company, before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, December 14, 1914.

Traffic

Messenger (W. H.). Traffic congestion problem in Brooklyn, N. Y. (Municipal Engineering, January, 1915, pp. 19–25 illus.)

Complaints of congestion of traffic in Brooklyn caused a survey to be made of conditions existing. Mr. Messenger was in charge of this survey. A method of relief by re-routing street cars, which were found to be the main cause of delays in passage of traffic, was proposed. The paper from which the above article was taken was read before the Brooklyn Engineers' Club, and contains the details of the re-routing plan.

MILLER (ALFRED F.). City traffic investigation at Bridgeport. Method of conducting the count. 1100 words, illus. (Engineering News, January 21, 1915.)

Transportation

See also above under "Jitney Bus."

GREAT BRITAIN. LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD. Arterial roads in Greater London. Report of sectional conferences held at the Local Government Board in March, 1914. London, 1914. 58 pp. F°.

Price 6d.

KEEGAN (GEORGE) and F. T. WOOD. Transportation facilities of London and Paris, as of October, 1913. 1915. 126 pp.

Published by the Interborough Rapid Transit Company.

PHILADELPHIA (PENN.). City Transit Department. First annual report for the year, 1913. 56 pp., illus. 8°.

——. City Transit Department. Special report on rapid transit development for Philadelphia. Submitted February 11, 1915. 42 pp. 4°.

Unemployment

See also above under Congestion of Population.

CHICAGO (ILL.). MUNICIPAL MARKETS COMMISSION. Report to the mayor and aldermen on a practical plan for relieving destitution and unemployment in the city of Chicago. December 28, 1914. 69 pp. 8°.

COMMONWEALTH CLUB OF CALIFORNIA. Transactions, v. 9, no. 13. December, 1914. Unemployment. pp. 671–714. 8°.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION LIBRARY. Emergency relief: a selected bibliography. December, 1914. 2 leaves. 8°.

Its Bulletin no. 8.

Vocational Education

CHURCHILL (THOMAS W.). Vocational schools in New York City to help boys. (National Association of corporation schools. Bulletin, December, 1914, pp. 5–10.)

Mr. Churchill is president of the board of education of New York City.

COMMONWEALTH CLUB OF CALIFORNIA. Transactions, v. 9, no. 12. November, 1914. Vocational education, pp. 617–670. 8°.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION. Synopsis of the findings of the vocational education survey of the City of Richmond, Va. 1914. 62 pp. 8°.

Published by the Society, 140 West 42d Street, New York City.

WILLIAMSPORT (PENN.). Board of Trade. Report of an investigation of the Independent Industrial School at Beverly, Mass., and a recommendation for the establishment of a similar school in Williamsport; by Charles C. Krouse, president of the Board of Trade. 1914. 24 pp.

Vocational Guidance

LEWIS (ERWIN E.). Work, wages, and schooling of eight hundred Iowa boys in relation to the problems of vocational guidance. [32 pp.] 8°. (Bulletin of the State University of Iowa n. s. 90. February 6, 1915. University Extension Bulletin 9.)

Investigation confined to Des Moines and Sioux City.

Water Supply

ANONYMOUS. Discussion of the elements of water works accounting. 3000 words. (Engineering and Contracting, December 30, 1914.)

——. Observations on water works valuation. 5800 words. (Engineering and Contracting, December 16, 1914.)

DUNLAP (JOHN H.). Water works statistics of thirty-eight cities of Iowa with the meter rates of seventy cities. November. 1914, 52 pp. 8°.

Bulletin of the University of Iowa. n. s. No. 87.

STEVENSON (R. A.). Water works accounting. 3800 words. (Fire and Water Engineering, December 16, 1914.)

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NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW

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HOW THE COMMISSION-MANAGER PLAN IS GETTING ALONG

BY RICHARD S. CHILDS [1]

New York

IT IS getting along rather nicely, thank you! Of course, it is a very young thing, dating only from January, 1913, when Sumter, S. C., first put it into effect. In this brief two years and a half, however, the commission-manager plan has been taken up by 25 cities and towns,[2] and five states[3] now have optional laws permitting their cities to adopt the plan by a simple formality. None of the commission-governed cities, except Amarillo, have changed over to the new plan yet; but some of them are planning to do so.

This represents very substantial material progress, and this scheme of municipal government now has an assured standing before any charter revision commission. In fact progress has been so rapid that critics might be moved to scoff at the willingness of our cities to experiment with new things, since there has really not been time for the new plan to

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[1] Secretary, National Short Ballot Organization, and chairman of the National Municipal League's committee on the commission form of government. See report of this committee, NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 44, also article on "The Commission Manager Plan," by Henry M. Waite, vol. iv, p. 40.

[2] City	Pop.	Date in Operation	City Manager	Salary
Sumter, S. C.	8,109	Jan. 1913	Vacant	$3,600
Hickory, N. C.	3,706	May 1913	S. C. Cornwall	2,000
Morganton, N. C.	2,712	May 1913	R. W. Pipkin	1,200
Dayton, Ohio	116,577	Jan. 1914	H. M. Waite	12,500
Springfield, O.	46,921	Jan. 1914	C. E. Ashburner	6,000
Phoenix, Ariz.	11,134	Jan. 1914	R. A. Craig	5,000

demonstrate whether it is good or bad. I suspect that the spread of the plan represents a new courage on the part of business men who formerly have left municipal charters exclusively to the lawyers; but who now find that familiar principles of business organization may after all deserve a respectful reception in the mysterious counsels of a charter revision committee.

The literature of the plan consists mainly of the report of the National Municipal League's Committee, a close analysis of the plan from the standpoint of political science; two pamphlets by the National Short Ballot Organization, one a popular exposition to be distributed in local campaigns for the adoption of the plan and the other a technical summary of the charters for the use of charter commissions; and the new book in the National Municipal League's series by H. A. Toulmin, Jr., entitled "The City Manager, a New Profession." This last is a little shy on perspective and a little fond in its appreciation, but, like its peer, Hamilton's "Dethronement of the City Boss" which played a useful part in the early days of the commission movement, it comes promptly, puts in orderly array all the material thus far available, and makes good reading for laymen.

City	Pop.	Date in Operation	City Manager	Salary
La Grande, Ore.....	4,843	Jan. 1914	F. J. Lafky	2,400
Amarillo, Tex........	9,957	Jan. 1914	M. H. Hardin	2,400
Cadillac, Mich.......	8,375	Jan. 1914	Ossian A. Carr	3,000
Manistee, Mich......	12,381	April 1914	Chas. E. Ruger	2,000
Montrose, Col.......	3,252	Jan. 1914	P. W. Pinkerton	1,800
Taylor, Tex.........	5,314	April 1914	Vacant	
Denton, Tex........	4,732	May 1914	W. L. Foreman	
Collinsville, Okla. ...	1,324	Sept. 1914	Claude Thorpe	
Lakeland, Fla.......	3,719	May 1914	D. F. McLeod	2,100
Big Rapids, Mich....	4,519	1914	W. J. Fairburn	1,500
Jackson, Mich.......	31,433	Jan. 1915	Gaylord C. Cummin	
Sherman, Tex.......	12,412	Apr. 1915	Karl M. Mitchell	
Bakersfield, Cal......	12,727	Apr. 1915	Wallace M. Morgan	3,000
Tyler, Tex..........	10,400	Apr. 1915		
Newburgh, N. Y.....	27,805	Jan. 1916		
Sandusky, O.........	19,989	Jan. 1916		
Ashtabula, O........	18,266			
Niagara Falls, N. Y..	30,445	Jan. 1916		
Wheeling, W. Va.....	41,641	Jan. 1917		

In addition there are officers called managers in the following towns, which cities do not have commission-manager charters or lack some of the fundamental features of the plan: Staunton and Fredericksburg, Va., Norwood, Mass., Inglewood and San Diego, Cal., Glencoe and River Forest, Ill., Grove City and Titusville, Pa., Morris, Minn., Clarinda and Iowa Falls, Ia., Clark, S. D., Beaufort, S. C., Tucson, Ariz., and Roswell, N. Mex., Terrell, Tex., Grand Haven, Mich., Alhambra, Cal. In Canada, Port Arthur, Ontario, and Maissonneuve, P. Q.

[3] Massachusetts, New York, Virginia, Ohio and Iowa.

Thus far there is no visible tendency on the part of charter makers to depart from the basic principles of the original Lockport proposal. The main difference of opinion seems to be in the question of what appointments shall be made by the commission direct in addition to the selection of the manager. The coming model charter of the National Municipal League arranges to have the commission appoint the civil service commission and the auditor, in addition to the manager who is to make all other appointments. The Dayton charter adds the city clerk to the commission's appointments. The Springfield charter has the commission appoint the manager, city solicitor, city auditor, city treasurer, purchasing agent, sinking fund commissioner and civil service commission, which obviously is going much too far.

In various other cities the assessors, municipal judges, the board of education, are, not improperly, appointed by the commission instead of by the city manager. Several cities have gone still further and have put the police department, for instance, beyond the manager's authority, until the city manager has become merely the city engineer or superintendent of public works, and accordingly I have excluded them from the list of commission-manager cities altogether, inasmuch as in such cities the manager cannot manage. (Dayton is unorthodox in its civil service provisions and has a freak clause subjecting the manager to popular recall, thereby giving him two masters to serve, the people and the commissioners.[4] Except in this matter the Springfield charter may be regarded as standard.) The most advanced charters are those of La Grande, Manistee, Cadillac and Taylor, which include the important provision of the preferential ballot.

The position of city manager, of course, is the central feature of the plan and the ultimate theory of the scheme contemplates that he should be an expert in municipal administration, selected without reference to local politics, and even imported from out of town.

In launching this plan of government we all feared that it might be many years before any American town would consent to having its best paid office go to any but home talent, and until this provincialism could be broken down, the professional city manager, giving his life to the science of municipal administration and advancing from the managership of small cities to larger ones at increases in salary, would be impossible. Happily, however, this provincialism, while it gives the local politicians a talking point, has proven to be largely a bugaboo. The first thing Sumter did was to advertise for applications for the office of city manager, and it hired one of the men who responded to the proclamation. Dayton began by offering the job to Goethals at Panama. Jackson was advertising recently by way of a paragraph handed to the Associated Press. Hickory put a little paid advertisement in the *Engineering News*.

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[4] See article of L. D. Upson in April issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, p. 266.

Still more astonishing, practically every city has chosen the manager from out of town. Even Phoenix, where the charter requires the city manager to be a local resident at the time of his selection, chose an itinerant engineer who was temporarily living there while engaged in a government project. Usually very few local men are considered, Indeed, it often happens that none apply. In at least one case where a well-qualified local man was available, the fact seemed to be against him. Citizens as a rule accept the idea of an imported manager as a part of the spirit of the plan and criticism ceases on that point after the adoption of the charter.

The transferability of managers from city to city also is already an established fact. Springfield hired the former city manager of Staunton, Va. Jackson offered its managership in turn to the managers of Dayton, of Springfield and of Big Rapids, and secured the latter at an advance in salary. Sherman, Tex., has hired the manager of River Forest, Ill., after an unsuccessful attempt to secure a man who had attracted commendation as mayor of Paris, Tex. The profession of city manager is thus securely established already. *The American City* publishes monthly a very respectable little classified list of advertisements of would-be city managers. The National Municipal League and the Short Ballot Organization both maintain an informal roster of prospective city managers and the University of Texas announces the formation of an embryo employment bureau for them. Three universities, California, Michigan and Texas have already projected courses for training city managers and the young men who are training in the various bureaus of municipal research have their eyes eagerly fixed on those positions.

In December 1914 the city managers had their first annual convention at Springfield and formed the City Managers Association.[5] Only eight of the seventeen managers were present, and so it was not very much of a convention, but rather a "round table." The proceedings have been published in full. The papers that they read to each other were not very technical, with the exception of one on municipal accounting, which was submitted by an outsider. It was clear that they took their new profession very seriously and were proud of being pioneers in it. There was genuine interchange of views, and humorous comparing of their troubles in "herding" their commissioners. A significant touch is given by the appearance of paid advertisements in the published proceedings, advertisements of asphalt, motor trucks, steam rollers, chemical engines and sweepers. City managers, who are likely to spend their whole life in municipal administration, are more worth the attention of a purveyor of municipal supplies than the transient old-style mayors, and when the City Managers Association grows to a good size, it is likely to have from this source all the money it can use and the association accordingly is capable of becoming of immense moment in municipal administrative progress in America.

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[5] Ossian A. Carr, Cadillac, Michigan, is the secretary.

The question of where trained city managers could be found has been answered in most cases by the selection of an engineer, with more or less experience in municipal work. In small cities this saves the separate salary of a city engineer. This seems to be the natural solution because in small cities there is not enough general administrative work to keep a man busy unless he is to take intimate personal charge of public works. Civil engineers, as a rule, have knocked about the world a good deal and have been forced to learn how to get along with people, while at the same time they are trained in precision and method. The profession comes as near to filling the bill as any, although, of course, the training is not broad enough to be entirely satisfactory and something better must eventually be found. Even Waite of Dayton, for instance, who is the ablest of all the managers and able to earn his $12,500 a year elsewhere than in his new profession, is by no means at home on matters outside of engineering and freely admits that he would have been much at sea many times but for the assistance of the local bureau of municipal research.

The value of this new style chief executive is expected to lie in the longer experience of the manager, as compared with the transitory chief executive of the older plan, but of course the plan has not yet been in operation long enough for this advantage to develop and there are still many cities with old style mayors who have had longer experience in municipal administration than any of the city managers. I think I can see, however, a more earnest desire on the part of the managers to educate themselves. Certainly they all feel a greater incentive and fondly hope that they are in the work of city-managing for life with a long and expanding career ahead of them.

I should like to be able to prove also by tangible evidence that the indefiniteness of the manager's tenure and the inability of the rank and file of the city administration to look forward to any definite time when the present manager and his disturbing ideas will disappear has resulted in giving to the manager better control over the civil service than an ordinary mayor can secure. Every new executive in private business or in public life runs up against a "System," an instinctive resistance on the part of his subordinates to new policies, and in municipal administration the "System" is frequently much stronger than the transient executive.

Perhaps the washing of the streets of Dayton fits my case. For a long time it had been desired to wash the streets with water, but it required the co-operation of the fire department, the water department and the public works department,—and the streets were not washed. The new manager was able to set the thing going at once.

Undoubtedly the city managers work harder than the average mayor and get closer to the details. In Manistee, for example, the old government had authorized $80,000 on a new trunk sewer; the existing sewer was 27 years old and was reported in very bad condition. The new city manager spent $1200 to clean out the old sewer and after the removal of several tons of sand and refuse it was found to be in perfect condition—and the new one is not to be built. A less spectacular case is the incident of the shovels in Sumter. Some shovels were needed for street work and when the requisition for the purchase came in to the city manager he refused it and sent for some idle shovels from the water department.

The easiest way to measure up the relative efficiency of the commission manager plan as compared with the old government is by financial comparison. In Dayton the total operating expense in 1914 was $1,067,062, an increase of $77,709 over the year before, but the new régime gave $140,000 worth of new services, or an improvement in efficiency of about 6 per cent in the first year, without taking into consideration the fact that the old administration used a considerable part of a flood prevention bond issue of $800,000 for ordinary operating expenses and thus made an ostensibly remarkable showing. In Springfield the operating expenses were reduced from $450,000 in 1913 to $400,000 in 1914, the first year under the new plan. A floating debt of $100,000 was wiped out in fourteen months. Meanwhile the town was getting more service than before. The area cleaned by the street cleaning department was increased by 25 per cent. Garbage collection, formerly provided for only a small portion of the city, was extended to every house. The valuation of increased services is not available, but leaving them out of the calculation, the new régime is apparently about 11 per cent better than the old.

In La Grande, the city manager found the city bankrupt, its warrants so greatly depreciated in value that the banks were refusing to take them at any price. Outstanding warrants had reached $110,000, slightly more than a whole year's budget. In the first year, $35,000 was cleared off and another $35,000 disappeared during the first four months of 1915.

In Manistee, the 1913 budget was $104,000. The new régime saved $20,000 of this and at the same time greatly increased the city's service, including the restoration of ten miles of paved street, which were in deplorable condition, as well as making unnecessary the $80,000 bond issue previously mentioned for the new sewer. Apparently, therefore, the new government in Manistee is 20 per cent better.

In Taylor, Tex., the annual income was $49,000 and in the first year under the new plan, with the aid of less than $2,000 new tax revenue, the city manager wiped out a floating debt of $9,600, a 15 per cent better showing.

Cadillac cut $6,000—13 per cent—out of the $47,000 of annual running expenses while improving the municipal service.

Little Hickory, N. C., with running expenses of $32,000, cut out $4,400—14 per cent—in the first year of the new plan, squeezed in several thousand dollars worth of extra service and kept up the pace in the second year.

Another little one, Morris, Minn., spent $28,300 in the first year of the new plan which was $3,800 more than the year before, but the manager shows an increase of $6,000 in permanent improvements and $2,500 more cash on hand—a 15 per cent advance.

Montrose, Col., reports that the old accounts were so meaningless as to make comparison impossible, but the manager starting with smaller appropriations saved in the first year enough to reduce the tax levy 18 per cent.

In Montrose the appropriation for 1913 was $43,810 and for 1914 $40,130. But the city did considerably more work with the latter sum and had $13,000 more cash on hand at the end of the year than at the beginning.

All the cities seem to have such stories to tell of increasing service without correspondingly increased expense, of floating debts being wiped out, of disbursements kept within appropriations, of municipal accounts that tell the true story, of thrift in little matters. All the managers seem to be keen to produce annual reports that will be creditable to the new way of doing things. Highly typical of the new spirit is the failure to fill the office of director of public safety at Dayton and Springfield. It was a charter position, but not altogether necessary inasmuch as the fire and police departments are already well unified and require little overhead co-ordination. How long would such an exempt position with its good salary have remained vacant under the old régime?

One of the unsettled points has been how to prevent the commission from interfering unduly with the manager. The commissioners are not always business men and do not always know how to delegate authority and keep their hands off. In Port Arthur, Ontario, which has had a commission-manager plan for six years, the commission, which is a large one, is incessantly interfering with the manager and fussing over details which ought to be delegated. In Sumter it was the same way. The commissioners constantly went over the head of the first manager and dealt directly with subordinates, so that the city manager was often merely a helpless spectator. In Phoenix the commissioners attempted to dictate appointments to the city manager and to make him retain inefficient employes for political reasons. The manager refused and was removed after a disagreement which had the whole town by the ears, and another man of presumably more complaisant temper was secured in his place. This, curiously enough, was under the one charter which attempted to set up defenses for the city manager, who could only be removed for cause after a public hearing. (This made the removal of the manager a question for the courts and for a time Phoenix had two city managers, each claiming exclusive authority. The Phoenix charter, quite properly, has been amended so that there can never again be a question of the ability of the commission to discharge a city manager.)

The city managers are a little inclined to talk impatiently about the need for a protected tenure, but if the commission is to be held responsible ultimately for every detail of the city management, the power to interfere must be left to it. Undoubtedly city managers will always be more or less impatient with the amateurs in the commission, who will ask the impossible, worry the manager with petty criticism and harry him with ridiculous theories. Nevertheless this clash of the expert with the amateur is just what we want. If the expert cannot convert a commission which has had enough confidence in him to hire him, it is probable that he would have difficulty also with the people whom that commission represents, and until he can win over that commission he ought not to be allowed to go ahead.

Tenure

The commissions of Dayton, Springfield, and certain other cities where the majority of members are business men, seem to be giving their city managers little trouble. Manager Hardin in Amarillo says: "I am the connecting link between the commission and the employes. The commission has never attempted to get out and instruct any of the employes, and the night I qualified I told the commission, 'now if you want anything done, come to the manager'; I told the employes 'if you want to know anything or want to get in touch with the commission, do it through me.' It will cost any man his job to go around me and try to put anything over with the commission."

In the long run, this solution, informal though it is, is probably better than any charter restriction.

When the commission consists, as it often does, of only five men in a fairly large city, there is a certain inadequacy on the representative side of the government. The Dayton commissioners have been pained to discover that they have been stepping on the toes of numerous people without knowing it. Large sections of the people find not a single man on the commission who is of their own type. Upson of Dayton and Waite, the city manager, are impressed with the problem and suggest proportional representation to insure a proper diversity in the commission.

Meanwhile much could be done by creating advisory boards attached to the several departments. All the best engineering talent that may happen to reside in the town could thus be called in to study and report independently to the manager and commission on the projects of the public works department. The local physicians could be hitched up to the health department and on other boards could be put citizens who manifest some interest, or who have some special ability or experience to contribute. Such boards, acquiring familiarity with departmental problems, could become highly serviceable. If the city manager determined upon a good, but unpopular, policy, there would be a dozen members of the advisory board prepared to explain it and justify it to fellow townsmen. If the policy was wrong, the unwillingness of the advisory board to concur would perhaps deter the manager and the commission from embarking upon it. The advisory board's objections might warn the manager when he was unknowingly rubbing the people the wrong way. A hundred men and women on such a group of advisory boards, having no actual power and hence not being self-seekers, can be developed by considerate treatment into a co-operative force of great value and comfort to the officials without clogging the simple machinery of the responsible government. In a large city advisory boards could be provided with paid secretaries and in any case their opportunities for inquiring should be unrestricted, their equipment for investigation should be ample, their reports should be public records.

The dissatisfaction expressed in Dayton by the attempt to amend the charter out of all semblance to the true commission-manager type is merely a phenomenon familiar in politics everywhere and akin to the fact that the mid-term congressional election usually runs against the administration. Cadillac experienced a similar reaction in the attempt to recall the commission after six months. Numberless commission-governed cities have seen the new plan subjected to bitter attacks during the first years, usually at the hands of those whose political power waned with the coming of the new era.

In Dayton there is extra danger in the fact that the business men at the beginning had things too wholly their own way and elected a hand-picked business ticket. Now business men comprise but a trifling percentage of the population and live a good deal in a little social world of their own, and a good many currents of opinion can flow that business men know nothing of. The business men supposed they had catered adequately to the rest of the people when they thoughtfully put a labor representative on their ticket, but apparently that was not enough. Any politician in Dayton could, for instance, have warned them that the fixing of the city manager's salary at the unfamiliarly high figure of $12,500 would be politically risky. It seems likely that in November Dayton will defeat the attempt to spoil the charter and will put a politician or two on the commission. In general, the cities that elect former mayors and councilmen to their new commissions may be making haste more slowly and more surely.

Other phases of the opposition to the commission-manager plan seem trifling. The idea of a chief executive from out of town seems to please more people than it disturbs. They dub it "one-man government" sometimes, but even that seems to fascinate and I have heard it seriously urged that the manager be made independent and relieved from interference by the commission. Some socialists have unofficially opposed it with the same blind hatred which they are apt to vent on anything that originates elsewhere. Perhaps it was due in part to the incaution of these same sapient business men in Dayton who naively sent out publicity to the effect that the commission-manager plan was "the creation of Mr. Patterson, a multi-millionaire manufacturer."

Socialists made similar attacks, officially, on the commission plan, whose originator in Des Moines they discovered to be a man of some means and therefore presumably an agent of capitalism intent on subverting democracy. They tamed down and withdrew from their position after a while and they are not making the same mistake again on the commission-manager plan. In Dayton they opposed the charter and are now being used by the politicians who are stirring up all the discontent they can. In Sandusky, Ohio, however, it was largely the socialists who put the charter through. Their own national information department, tackling the problem of municipal government constructively, arrived by inevitable logic at the commission-manager principle. Their convention could not quite swallow it, but the plan will gain a few more friends and become orthodox except that the non-partisan ballot, wonderfully helpful to them though it is, will doubtless remain taboo.

Our own Mr. Foulke has shaken his finger in solemn warning of the danger that elections may revolve around the question of retaining or replacing the city manager. This would, of course, be quite out of the spirit of the plan, but it will undoubtedly occur from time to time just as it occurs in school board elections when the superintendent becomes an issue. The proper antidote is a becoming modesty on the part of the city manager. In all dealings with the public the commissioners should do the talking, the explaining and the glorifying. If the commissioners hire a fine manager and thereby get fine results, theirs is the glory; the manager is only their agent and private adviser. The commissioners ought to be the ones to go around making speeches; the manager ought to be on happy terms with the reporters, but, like the president, never be personally quoted in their despatches. His opinions ought to stay under his hat except when he is in consultation with the commission. He should never appear in open conflict with the commission and if he does differ with them, others must make the fight. In other words, he must at all cost keep out of politics. That means crawling into a hole out of the limelight and resolutely staying there, and thus unobtrusively continuing manager through successive administrations no matter how various may be the commissions that come and go over his silent head. Manager Ashburner of Springfield, with political experience as manager of Staunton, Va., has kept pretty quiet and has now bought a home in Springfield. Manager Chappell of Big Rapids and Jackson does not even burst into print when the inexperienced Jackson commissioners displace him in impatience with the cautiousness of his innovations. But manager Waite of Dayton became a national figure—and an issue for next November's election! The Dayton pamphlet covering the first half year of the new rule was the "Report of the City Manager to the Commission" with an introductory letter by the city manager and the names of the commissioners nowhere to be seen. The second pamphlet six months later was the "Report of the City Commission," signed by the commissioners, beginning "One year ago *we* took up the reins of government" and no mention of the city manager anywhere! Apparently practice supports the theory!

With the commission plan in small towns a commission of three was better than one of five because their work was mainly individual and executive. With the commission-manager plan there is no advantage in making the commission so very small. The short ballot principle is well enough observed with five, or an even larger board can be provided if the terms expire in rotation. The complaint comes from Sumter that the difficulty with the commission of three is the tendency to meet by telephone or settle a policy on the sidewalk. Public business should not be handled in that elusive way. A meeting of the commission should be a formal occasion at a set time so that the public can look in and interject comment if it wants to. A little larger commission is likely to meet with more ceremony and overhaul each proposition more noisily.

Sherman, Texas, varies the plan in a way that will be worth copying when larger commissions begin to come into vogue, as they should and will. Sherman elects sixteen commissioners with rotating tenures and the charter provides for an executive committee of three within the commission, chosen by it and holding office at its pleasure, to handle details and to work in special intimacy with the manager.

The cities to watch just now are Dayton, where the plan is under attack, Phoenix, where the commission has fired a manager because he was above being a patronage-broker, and Niagara Falls, where the managership is viewed by some as a prize plum for some local politician.

My final note is most significant of all. It concerns a letter received a while ago from a California school boy. He admits that he has not stood any too high in his studies, but he has decided that he could do great good to thousands of people as the manager of some city (of course a small one at first) and can I please tell him what and where to read and study as a preparation? Forsooth! Municipal administration in America an iridescent dream for youths!

RECENT CITY PLAN REPORTS

BY CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON
Rochester, N. Y.

I

EXACTLY a year ago[1] the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW published its second annual review of American city plan reports. In the twelve months that have since elapsed, more than thirty additional reports have appeared. While the total probably represents the largest number ever issued in a one-year period, so attesting the virility of the city planning movement, there is this strikingly significant fact to be observed in running over the titles of the long list. Of the thirty and more reports, only three make the slightest suggestion of covering all the phases of a city plan. And one of these modestly uses the word "studies"; in the text of another, the author—who happens not to be an American—hastens to explain that his report is, after all, only preliminary—in fact, that qualifying word appears on the inside title page, so that very likely it was not his fault that it did not also have place on the cover; and the third is plainly labeled, on the outside, "preliminary report." All the others profess to deal with no more than one aspect or phase of city planning.

That a very healthy and desirable situation is thus revealed must be obvious to every one who knows how wide reaching the scope of real city planning is. Most of all, it will be evident to the city planners themselves. The discovery will give to them courage and hope, for nothing is more disheartening than for a struggling, more or less tired, finite brain to be asked to do infinite things. The piece worker, whose lot is so often pitied, has at least the satisfaction of knowing that he can do the whole of his job and do it perfectly, a satisfaction which heretofore has been denied to the American city planner. Moreover, this increase of modesty, or shall we say of common sense, is likely to bring to the movement new and more powerful friends; and the work itself will gain in proficiency and thoroughness.

While this development is the outstanding feature in the published city plan reports of the last twelve or fifteen months, two other tendencies which were noted a year ago have persisted, and in so doing have acquired added significance. These are the substitution of thoughtful, studious discussion for showy pictures and the appearance of reports by commissions that are integral parts of municipal administrations. These characteristics may now, probably, be considered as fixtures of present day city planning in the United States.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 539.

With publications so many and varied, it is no easy matter to know where to begin a review. Perhaps the three general reports offer the best starting point, for then we shall be free to take up the discussion of distinct phases of the subject.

II

These general reports deal with Albany, Calgary and Bridgeport. In their handsome presentation, their many beautiful photographs and plans, they well represent that older, and certainly attractive, type of report which, though so prominent among the publications of a year ago, seems now to be passing. Yet it may be that the decrease in their number is due to the sudden contraction and conservatism which followed the breaking out of the war, rather than to a tendency which will be permanent. For the general city plan report has, it should be noted, commendable qualities besides its mere attractiveness. To create a community ideal, to put a vision into the minds of money-making citizens, to visualize the community concept—all that was well worth the doing, and without its doing municipal progress would not have gone as far as it has. If the city efficient, and even the city beautiful, seem more likely to be attained as a result of concentrated scientific studies, and of technical reports which can be presented in a matter-of-fact fashion, it is something to have created the wish for their attainment. Perhaps, indeed, that is an equally essential part of the long operation of securing them. So the reports for Albany and Calgary, and appreciably, though to less extent, that for Bridgeport, are yet studies typical of a kind which has its own particular value, and for which the need may never entirely pass.

There could hardly be a coupling of cities, with approximately equal populations, which are more unlike. Albany, crowded on steep hillsides, stands for age, for the traditional conservatism of the Dutch, for hereditary wealth. Calgary, far scattered, stands flamboyantly for youth and enthusiasm; for riches lately taken from the earth. Bridgeport spells industrialism in its modern urban aspect. It is significant therefore that such diverse cities have coincidently secured city plan studies, and have paid relatively large sums for them.

"Studies for Albany"[2] represents the collaborative work of Arnold W. Brunner, architect, and Charles Downing Lay, landscape architect. The larger part, however, seems to be the contribution of Mr. Brunner, the whole work bearing a strongly architectural impress, which in plan and presentation is marked by that elegance of manner so characteristic of Mr. Brunner's city planning. There is in the text, withal, much of good sense and of restraint, and a welcome absence of foreign photographs.

The preface to the Albany report clearly states that "a city is a living organization and must grow and develop naturally, and the basic principle of city planning is to consider the plan merely as a program for its future development." The author calls attention to Albany's "pronounced individuality" and voices the wise decision that "it would seem a calamity to attempt to formalize the city of Albany."

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[2] "Studies for Albany." Arnold W. Brunner, architect; Charles Downing Lay, landscape architect. 1914.

The studies comprise a score of short discussions of definite problems. Each of these is fully illustrated, and is accompanied by plans and perspectives of prospective effects. The method involves some sacrifice of the sense of cohesiveness and co-ordination, but it is concise and clear; and presumably it left Mr. Lay free to handle the subjects which naturally fell within the scope of his scrutiny. The thousands of travelers who, in entering Albany by rail or river, note the transformation now taking place at the foot of State Street under the direction of Messrs. Brunner and Lay, will feel a special interest in this report.

"The City of Calgary: Past, Present and Future,"[3] is a sumptuous volume by Thomas H. Mawson and Sons, of England. It contains many colored plates as well as many photographs, is bound in stiff covers, and may be had only by purchase (at $2.00) from the Calgary city planning commission.

Of the admirable discussion in the text and the scientific analysis, the fine pictures give little hint. On reading, one finds that the mind mainly responsible for it is not only, as so obviously, an artist's. The inside title, "Calgary: A Preliminary Scheme for Controlling the Economic Growth of the City," paves the way for a table of contents which contains such main headings as traffic disposal, policing and fire control; trade and commerce; the civic life; the environs; financial and legal—discussions which the delightful illustrations would not have suggested. So also do these words which, taken from an address by Mr. Mawson, have been printed on a front page by themselves:

> City planning is not the attempt to pull down your city and rebuild it at ruinous expense. It is merely deciding what you would like to have done when you get the chance, so that when the chance does come, little by little you may make the city plan conform to your ideals.

But the introduction opens with the words, "The problem of the planning of a modern city is one which must appeal with overwhelming power to the imagination." It is, then, in no cold-blooded way that the expert has taken up his work. There is an interesting survey of physical, social and commercial conditions, and the discussion of what to do for Calgary and how to do it is based on the accepted principles of the science of modern city building. If one sought an idea of what city planning undertakes to do and were restricted to the scrutiny of a single report, he could do no better perhaps than study that for Calgary.

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[3] Calgary: A Preliminary Scheme for Controlling the Economic Growth of the City. Thomas H. Mawson and Sons, city planning experts, London.

The "Preliminary Report to the City Plan Commission of Bridgeport, Conn." is by John Nolen.[4] It is published, the commission states, "for the purpose of calling out discussion, criticism, comment and public opinion generally." Its proposals as a whole have been, as yet, neither approved nor disapproved by the commission.

Thus the volume, which is presented in much cheaper form than are the reports for Albany and Calgary, lacks the air of completeness and finality which they possess. It is simply a compilation of data, diagrammatic and statistical; and even the text, which is very brief, does not lose the preliminary, or tentative, quality. "When the plans and preliminary report have had careful consideration," says Dr. Nolen in concluding his summary, "it will be possible to take the suggestions and criticisms, and with more confidence undertake the preparation of the final plans and recommendations." He adds also this important suggestion: "If results are to be obtained in city planning, it is also necessary for the commission to have in its employ some one who is constantly 'on the job.' City planning for a growing city like Bridgeport is a permanent, endless process. It is not merely a matter of getting from some one a report and some plans, with a list of recommendations. If a city is alive and growing, the city planning never gets done. Therefore it is necessary to have some one familiar with the matter, free to follow it up constantly." The Bridgeport report is interesting especially, then, to the outsider, as a survey, for its bringing together of the material from which a real city plan may eventually be evolved. It is entertaining, further, to know that Dr. Nolen himself has said of the study that it is the "briefest city plan report ever made. . . . One can read the report in 36 minutes."

III

In a class by itself, but more nearly akin to the general reports than to those which discuss single specific phases of city planning, is a pamphlet entitled, "Notes for a Study in City Planning in Champaign-Urbana, by the 1913 and 1914 Classes in Civic Design at the University of Illinois."[5] The professor in charge of the course explains, in a foreword, that "to give concreteness and practicability to their work," he had required his students in the two classes to make a study of civic conditions in the twin cities in which the university is located. To each student, moreover, a special subject was assigned for investigation and report, and these theses, subsequently discussed in class room, form the chapters of the little book.

To make, therefore, an authoritative city plan for Champaign and Urbana was not the prime purpose of the study. Rather, the object was the reaction upon the students themselves, "in the quickening of their social consciousness and the broadening of their civic outlook." But so admirable were the theses, and so fully did they embody "general principles of procedure which relate to civic problems everywhere," that the head of the department ordered their printing and circulation at university expense. "The report as a whole," says the *Municipal Journal*, "indicates that the students have been taught to notice carefully those things which have to do with the well being and favorable appearance of a city, and that they have imbibed a realization of the importance of details." This pamphlet, illustrated with photographs and containing a map and some diagrams, represents something new and interesting among general city plan reports.

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[4] Preliminary Report to the City Plan Commission, Bridgeport, Conn., with supplementary material, by John Nolen, city planner. January, 1915.

[5] Notes for a Study in City Planning in Champaign-Urbana, by the 1913 and 1914 Classes in Civic Design at the University of Illinois. 1915.

Further evidence of the practical nature of the city planning training which now is being given to college students is offered, significantly, by the pamphlet on "Akron Pavements,"[6] which has lately come from the office of the dean of the college of engineering in Akron's municipal university. The city council requested the university to investigate the condition, cost and durability of Akron's pavements. The report advocates city planning, noting that a first step in the planning of a pavement, as of any other structure, is the determination, as far as possible, of its future use, a determination which city planning based on traffic counts will go far toward settling. It expresses also the desire of the university to be of such further assistance, through both students and faculty, as it may. Valuable general data have been tabulated in the appendices.

In leaving general reports, to take up those which, like the Akron study of pavements, discuss single phases only of the city plan, it becomes possible to arrange the latter publications in groups, according to subject considered. We have, for example, three which map out park systems, a half-dozen which consider problems of transportation, others which take up the housing question, city planning legislation, etc. It is significant that reports of this character, which a year ago could be dismissed with a few words, form so large a part of this year's publications. The tendency toward specialization, then observed, has made rapid progress.

IV

Of the reports on park systems, two really date back a long time, though they have only just come from the press. These are the reports by Olmsted Brothers for Spokane, Washington, and for Dayton, Ohio. The Spokane park plan,[7] now presented in a report by the park commission covering the period from 1891 to 1913, was actually completed in April of 1908. The report is more than a mere park plan. Made under the personal supervision of John C. Olmsted and J. Frederick Dawson, its long text is a better city plan report than some of the publications to which in the past that overworked name has been given. Besides discussing the treatment of existing parks, and recommending new parks, playfields, and boulevards and parkways, there is a long section devoted to consideration of the revision of the city plan. Here such matters as rapid transit, steam railroads, the size of lots, the restriction of building height and location, and an art commission are treated with illuminating and suggestive comment. If, in conformity with its title, the Spokane park report is not to be considered a general city plan study, it is only because the emphasis placed by it on the subject of parks is, viewing the problem as a whole, disproportionate.

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[6] Akron Pavements: A Report of an Investigation made by the Municipal University of Akron. 1914.

[7] Report of the Board of Park Commissioners, Spokane, Washington, 1891–1913.

The report on a park system for Dayton,[8] published at the end of 1914, is dated, even on the outside cover, three and a half years earlier; but it is the sort of report which will not grow old, at least outside of Dayton, for the comment on local features is thickly interspersed with the wise enunciation of general principles of which the application is not limited by time or place. For this report, also, John C. Olmsted is believed to be largely responsible, though it is issued, as is the practice, under the firm name.

The third report outlining a park system is that for Little Rock, Arkansas, by John Nolen.[9] It is not a long report, and aside from some cross sections showing suggested treatments for streets and avenues, there are only three plans and one (a city) map. But it is presented in a form unusually attractive, and its discussion is definite and practical. It is arranged under the headings: A., City squares, civic center and capitol grounds; B., School grounds and athletic fields; C., Main avenue system; D., Encircling parks and boulevards; E., Reservations.

In an introductory word, Dr. Nolen makes these interesting comments: "In the reservation of parks it should be clearly understood that the primal end is neither to beautify, nor to add a luxury. . . . Park reservation serves a distinctly practical purpose, providing always an element of permanence to a neighborhood, which serves to fix the real estate values in the region. . . . In our rapidly growing American cities, it is vitally necessary to recognize certain laws on which wholesome development depends, precisely as we recognize laws on which the physical development of the individual depends. . . . A certain ratio should be maintained between the population of a city and the area reserved for open spaces. As the city develops, it is a short-sighted policy that fails to maintain the ratio—a policy which leads eventually to low property valuation, to slum conditions and to ill-favored succeeding generations."

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[8] Report on Proposed Park System for the City of Dayton, Ohio. Olmsted Brothers, landscape architects, Brookline, Mass. April 12, 1911.

[9] Report on a Park System for Little Rock, Arkansas. John Nolen, landscape architect, Cambridge, Mass.

V

It was noted, in preparing the review of a year ago, that the later reports were showing a strong interest in the problems of transportation, as these are developed on both highway and railroad. The current reports express this interest with a growing emphasis.

One of the most elaborately issued and most suggestive of all the reports of the year has proved to be that of Secretary Hooker of the Chicago City Club, on "Through Routes for Chicago's Steam Railroads".[10] Its purpose is to discover "the best means for attaining popular and comfortable travel for Chicago and suburbs," and with this intention it presents two propositions: "The first is that Chicago's urgent need for better means of fast and comfortable local travel should be largely met by its steam lines; the second is that these should, to that end, be organized on the through route plan." The points made are that the steam lines are mostly elevated already, as respects street interference; that they represent the highest speed in travel; fan out thickly over the city; and, having their own rights-of-way, minimize public suffering from the noise, dust and danger incident to fast travel that uses street lines, whether on, above, or below the surface. Finally, it is shown that even in Chicago there is a wide margin of unused capacity on the steam railroads. All these points are set forth with arguments, supported by numerous photographs, cartoons, and striking diagrams, possessing far more than local application.

The city planning bearing of the project is sufficiently indicated in the author's contention that a system of through-routing for local travel on the steam lines would, if properly designed and executed, yield more accommodation in rapid transit for the same outlay than could be secured by any other means. But he explains that in concrete terms the promise is, 1, more home life for the people, taking them out to cheap land where they can have better houses with more space around them; 2, better health for the people; and, 3, these gains at the minimum of expense. The popular manner in which all this is set forth, its original character, and the wealth of pertinent data which accompany it, combine to make this book one of the best presented, and one of the most instructive and valuable, of the year's city planning reports.

In marked contrast to this presentation is the report on Chicago railway terminals by John F. Wallace[11]—a technical report by an expert engineer to the city council, though its technicality appears rather in the form of its publication than in its writing. With the main business district of the city now fearfully congested, with the railroads so hemming it in that it cannot spread while they remain in their present locations, with the necessity imminent for new and larger terminals, and with projects pending already for some of these, the railroad problem in Chicago has become a very inviting subject of study and of vigorous discussion. Mr. Wallace has little to say on the theme which Mr. Hooker so earnestly presented. He thinks the goal beset with practical difficulties, but believes it one to be kept in view and gradually worked toward. His interest is, as doubtless requested, in the problems immediately pressing, and while these are local questions only it is interesting to note, as of possibly general application, his emphatic objection to a suggestion for a single union station for passenger business, or to a continuous group of such stations which, adjoining, would be practically one, as has been proposed on Twelfth street. "From a practical railroad point of view," he says, "a single union station would increase congestion, be more unsatisfactory and inconvenient to passengers, and more expensive to the railroad companies, without enough compensating features to justify its use."

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[10] Through Routes for Chicago's Steam Railroads, by George Ellsworth Hooker. 1914. See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 798.

[11] Report of Mr. John F. Wallace to the Committee on Railway Terminals of the City Council of Chicago. October 20, 1913.

At the same time that Mr. Wallace was making his report, a report on the like subject was under preparation by Bion J. Arnold, for a citizens' terminal plan committee,[12] paid for by private subscription. It is much the more extended and exhaustive study, the text alone making a volume of 223 printed pages, to which there are to be added folded-in maps and a statistical appendix. That such a report could be turned out in sixty days is one of the most remarkable features of it. Mr. Arnold received his formal authorization on September 19, 1913; Mr. Wallace's report was delivered on October 18, and Mr. Arnold's on November 18. Mr. Wallace had already co-operated, however, by making available the data which he had collected. These data, which are not included in Mr. Wallace's own published report, with these which Mr. Arnold adds as the result of his studies, are most interesting and valuable and, naturally, constitute the bulk of the book. The chapters include discussions of such questions as: influences affecting terminal problems, the city plan, growth and future development, analysis of terminal plans presented, powers of the municipality, all of them subjects of importance to city planners.

The committee which retained Mr. Arnold states, in a foreword, that it was "not committed in favor of, or against, any of the various terminal plans"; that its sole object was that the "problem shall be thoroughly, broadly and constructively investigated, with a view to reaching the best general solution." Mr. Arnold's recommendations look to a straightening of the south branch of the Chicago river; the placing, within a definite time, of the tracks of most of the steam railroad companies in covered subways beneath the street level in the area bounded by Twelfth, Halsted and Lake streets and the lakefront; the concentration of long distance passenger traffic into the fewest possible number of terminals; and an "interchangeability of suburban service between roads operating in different parts of the city."

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[12] Report on the Re-Arrangement and Development of the Steam Railroad Terminals of the City of Chicago. Submitted to the Citizens' Terminal Plan Committee of Chicago. By Bion J. Arnold, consulting engineer. November 18, 1913.

With regard to street traffic problems, a division of the Boston Chamber of Commerce has brought out a very interesting report on the conditions in the business center of Boston, with various proposals looking to the relief of the congestion.[13] From the broad standpoint of general city planning, it is significant, first, that the traffic conditions have gradually become so serious, imposing upon business so great a handicap to its efficient operation, that the chamber is willing to expend much valuable time in the study of the problem, and no small amount of money in prosecuting the study and publishing its findings, illustrated with diagrams, photographs, etc.; and, second, that the study has been undertaken by the chamber's younger men. Their report opens with a brief historical survey which is full of interest to the city planner. The investigators, having sketched the growth of the city, say: "Once the whole business district was fully occupied, there was only one possible way for it to expand. It was bounded on the west by the Common, on the northwest by two hills, and on the north and east by the river and the harbor respectively. Geographically, it could spread to the south and southwest, but all traffic from the western section to the business districts breaks against the Common, flows around it, and tumbles into the whirlpool beyond. There is no broad attractive street to carry the stream to the south and southwest of the present crowded district. Hence, retailers have been afraid to move. They want to be in the whirlpool, not in slack water. Had such a street as described been constructed when the Back Bay was filled in, the present situation might have been very different." No better argument to show the value of city planning could be asked for than is offered by this entirely unprejudiced report. Remedies now proposed are discussed under the headings of better traffic methods and changes in street construction and arrangement, the committee feeling that "to consider means by which the present business district of Boston can be extended in area," which they recognize as the one permanent remedy, "would be to transcend the natural scope of this report." They urge, however, "that the proper committee of the chamber vigorously take up this matter."

Of the several reports having to do with street traffic, the most elaborate, however, is that made for Philadelphia by the transit commissioner,

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[13] Street Traffic in the City of Boston. A Study Made under the Direction of the Governing Board of the Under Forty Division, Boston Chamber of Commerce. 1914.

A. Merritt Taylor, and his staff.[14] This has been published in two large volumes, of which the second is entirely given up to maps and diagrams. These are colored, drawn on such a scale that they have to be folded in, and are seventy in number. This gives an idea of the elaborateness both of the study and of its presentation—qualities which put it in the front rank among all the reports of a city planning nature that have yet been published in America. The text is divided into twelve sections which include recommended routes, general design, estimates of cost, of time-saving, of traffic, of income, of effect on assessed values; statistics in regard to population and housing, in regard to rapid transit in all the larger American cities, and to rates of fare.

In addition to this monumental report, the department of city transit in Philadelphia has issued, in modest pamphlet form, its annual report.[15] As the first report of a department organized only on July 1, 1913, there is given some account of the office organization and of the history of its creation. The department's birth was one of the results of the city's great transit study, to secure the carrying out of recommendations which the transit commissioner had made. There seems a likelihood that this begins a series of annual reports that will be most interesting to future students.

Yet another Philadelphia report, that also deals with the transportation end of the subject, is one issued by the department of public works. It discusses the abolition of grade crossings in South Philadelphia and the consequent development there of opportunities for commercial and industrial progress.[16] This, too, is issued in pamphlet form. The redemption of South Philadelphia by the correction of the railroad situation, and then the re-platting of streets, has been before the public more or less for 25 years. The report, with its many constructive suggestions and its program of a policy, now agreed upon, represents therefore a matured judgment and well ripened plan that is of great local interest.

VI

Last year's review hazarded the guess, based on various indications, that housing was one of the subjects most likely to be emphasized in American city planning reports of the near future. In the publications of the last twelve months the subject receives important attention.

From the Minneapolis civic and commerce association, which is responsible for city planning in Minneapolis, comes a profusely illustrated pamphlet on the housing problem.[17] The excuse for the pamphlet is stated in these words, taken from the preface: "It is vastly more important to every business man that Minneapolis be prepared to comfortably house and care for a population of 1,000,000 twenty-five years hence than that the industries to support a population be secured." The housing problem, it is pointed out, is "the universal result of unguided city growth. . . . Neither Minneapolis nor any other city in America has yet learned the art of growing." The investigation, of which the report is the product, occupied several months and revealed that Minneapolis had the usual housing evils. The final section is devoted to a plea for city planning. "The primary question," say the business men who write the report, "is not, 'What can the tenant afford?' it is, 'What can Minneapolis afford?' "

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[14] Report of Transit Commissioner, City of Philadelphia, July, 1913.

[15] Annual Report of the Department of City Transit of the City of Philadelphia for the Year ending December 31, 1913.

[16] South Philadelphia. The Abolishment of Grade Crossings and the Creation of Opportunities for Commercial and Industrial Development. Department of Public Works. Philadelphia, 1913.

A report which comes from another committee of the same association considers the limitation of heights of buildings.[18] It compares the needs of Minneapolis and the practice of Minneapolis with that of other cities, presenting much valuable data; and in a series of appendices, illustrated by charts, it considers the requirements for adequate light and air. A proposed ordinance is submitted which would prohibit structures exceeding "a greater height than 1¾ times the width of the street, with a maximum height of 140 feet to the top of the parapet," except under certain conditions—as, for example, for towers. The projection of cornices is also regulated. While this report does not compare in exhaustiveness of data with the remarkable study published last year by the Heights of Buildings Commission of New York, it yet constitutes a very definite and practical statement which is easily grasped. The New York report,[19] a volume of 300 pages of text, exclusive of many pages of illustrations, maps, etc., will remain of course in a class by itself. Nothing can ever again be written on the regulation of building heights without going to the report of the New York commission, as to the standard reservoir of data.

Of somewhat similar exhaustiveness, but on another subject, are the discussion and collated material in the first annual report of the Massachusetts homestead commission.[20] This takes up the subject of housing, and of city and town planning from a housing standpoint, considering such subjects as the organization of housing companies, the exemption of homes from taxation, state aid, etc. The practice of some thirty or more countries, in Europe, Asia, South America, Australia and Africa is described. In fact, as one goes over the published reports of the last year, on various phases of city planning, one cannot but be impressed by the amount of research which has been going forward, and with the thoroughness of study which is now made possible.

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[17] The Housing Problem in Minneapolis. A Preliminary Investigation made for the Committee on Housing of the Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association. September, 1914.

[18] Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association. Report of Municipal Committee on Limitation of Heights of Buildings.

[19] Report of the Heights of Buildings Commission to the Committee on the Height, Size and Arrangement of Buildings of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of the City of New York. December 23, 1913.

[20] The Commonwealth of Massachusetts. First Annual Report of The Homestead Commission. 1914.

VII

From the homestead commission there has also come, more recently, a valuable report on that method of paying for improvements which is known as the assessment for betterments, in which land damages and the levying of special assessments, having been combined in one proceeding, are determined by a commission appointed by the court.[21] Familiar as this procedure is in states west of New England, it is novel there.

Another Massachusetts report on legal procedure in the execution of city planning projects has appeared in pamphlet form in a statement prepared by Flavel Shurtleff on "City Planning in Relation to the Street System in the Boston Metropolitan District." [22] The committee on city planning of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, in transmitting the statement, urges the granting of larger powers to Massachusetts town planning boards, the provision of suitable appropriations for them, the acquisition when possible of the fee in new streets rather than the easement, and the appointment of a state commission to revise the assessment laws.

VIII

A group of reports having to do with the more artistic side of city building—and the relative smallness of this group is striking witness to how far modern city planning has traveled from the "city beautiful" slogan of its earlier days—includes, as most important, a brochure on "A Center of Arts and Letters," issued by the Detroit city plan and improvement commission.[23] This contains, with map and brief statement, the plans prepared by E. H. Bennett of Chicago and Frank Miles Day of Philadelphia for the utilization in Detroit of certain lands, already mostly in public ownership, as a site for a library, an art museum and minor buildings.

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[21] Report to the Honorable the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts relative to Taking Land for Public Purposes. February, 1915. House No. 1851.

[22] Report on City Planning in Relation to the Street System in the Boston Metropolitan District, issued under the direction of the Committee on City Planning of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, 1914.

[23] Detroit City Plan and Improvement Commission. A Center of Arts and Letters. November, 1913.

From the same commission there comes a very brief "Statement of Progress," with illustrations, on the splendid memorial fountain which, with the James Scott bequest, is to be placed at the apex of Belle Isle.[24]

A report (the second) of the commission on beautifying the city of Norfolk, Virginia, is almost wholly devoted to the subject of street trees.[25] At the end, however, it contains an interesting and impressive "résumé of the plans of the commission when it began its work in 1909," and a statement of what, in co-operation with others, the commission has accomplished.

In this group of publications there should also be placed the annual reports that have been issued by municipal art commissions, as those particularly of Pittsburgh[26] and of New York[27]—the first named because it covers the activities of the commission since its creation, a period of three and a half years; and the second because it is New York's. Both reports are fully illustrated and attractively presented. The Pittsburgh commission is interesting, moreover, in itself because, unlike any other municipal art commission, it is not entirely composed of local men. Value is added to the record it presents by the inclusion of the report of E. H. Bennett on the development of Pittsburgh's "Point."

IX

The reference to reports of municipal art commissions brings up a group of publications in which regularly organized divisions of the city government make record of their city planning activities. The appearance of reports of this kind was noted a year ago as something new; and their recurrence now, though the increase in their numbers is not large, has been spoken of as one of the significant features of the year's output. No doubt in annual reports of mayors and of departments of engineering and public works these records appear with considerable frequency, and the importance of their inclusion in such places should not be overlooked. But it means a little more to see them brought out by themselves.[28]

From Springfield, Massachusetts, comes the first annual report of the city planning commission.[29] This covers a period of about fourteen months, ending December 1, 1914, during which time there have been

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[24] City Plan and Improvement Commission. James Scott Memorial Fountain. Statement of Progress. Detroit, November, 1914.

[25] Second Report of the Commission on Beautifying the City of Norfolk, Virginia. January, 1912–July, 1913.

[26] An Account of the Work of the Art Commission of the City of Pittsburgh, from its Creation in 1911 to January 1, 1915.

[27] Annual Report of The Art Commission of the City of New York. For the year 1913. New York, 1914.

[28] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. ii, p. 494.

[29] First Annual Report of the City Planning Commission to the City Council. City of Springfield, Mass. 1914.

"forty-one regular meetings of the commission," besides "numerous conferences with departments and commissions, members thereof, and individuals." Two matters referred to the commission by the city council receive attention in the report. These are a contemplated removal of trolley poles from a portion of Main street, and the so-called "East Springfield project"—the platting of certain thoroughfares in a new subdivision. The larger portion of the report, however, is devoted to a compilation of useful data with regard to the city and to an impressive analysis of the subjects which, in the commission's estimation, should be included in a city planning study of Springfield.

The annual report of the Hartford commission on the city plan makes its regular appearance,[30] and the annual report of the Bureau of Surveys of Philadelphia[31] is, as usual, divided between questions of a strictly city planning nature—as the extension and improvement of the street system—and questions having to do with the construction of sewers.

From Newark, New Jersey, there has come an interesting little publication, put out by the board of education, for the school children's study of Newark.[32] Its brief and simple text, aided by illustrations, makes it possible for Newark's children to appreciate what city planning is to mean for their city, an appreciation that may do much for the future Newark.

Messrs. Goodrich and Ford, the experts retained by the city plan commission of Jersey City, issue a report supplementary to that which was mentioned here a year ago.[33] This takes the form of a memorandum of matters to be investigated or points to be studied, its interest to non-residents of Jersey City being in the breadth of its range of subjects, and the thoroughness of study which it indicates.

Finally, the annual report of the city parks association of Philadelphia should have a word.[34] Reports from such sources have not been included heretofore in this review, but this is because none other is in quite the same city planning class as those of the Philadelphia association. For a quarter century this organization has kept consistently in view the desirability of securing a comprehensive, scientifically worked-out plan for Philadelphia. Every report has made contribution to that end, the series forming a valuable addition to both the propagandist and practical literature of city planning. As to the results, these are evident in the prominence which is Philadelphia's in a tabulation of the publications of the last year.

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[30] Sixth Annual Report of the Commission on the City Plan to the Mayor and Court of Common Council, City of Hartford, Connecticut. Year ending March 31, 1913.

[31] Annual Report of the Bureau of Surveys of the City of Philadelphia for the year ending December 31, 1913. Issued by the City of Philadelphia.

[32] City Planning—1914. Leaflet No. 23. Issued by the Board of Education for the Study of Newark in the Schools of Newark, New Jersey.

[33] Addenda Memoranda to Report of Suggested Plan of Procedure for City Plan Commission, City of Jersey City, New Jersey, by E. P. Goodrich, Geo. B. Ford. May 1, 1913.

[34] Twenty-Sixth Annual Report of the City Parks Association of Philadelphia. 1914.

X

With war ruining the cities of Europe, to which we so long have looked for instruction, and with many months of financial depression in this country, during which the cities had difficulty in selling bonds, it is noteworthy that our city planning movement has continually progressed.

The record of the next year is not likely to be less. Various cities—as Sacramento on the Pacific coast, Topeka in the far southwest, Minneapolis and Grand Forks in the northwest, and New York in the east, are known to have had studies made, to which publication is yet to be given, or to have such studies now under way. The University of Pennsylvania is conducting the first American summer school in town planning; the cities of California have lately organized a state city-planning conference; annual conferences are now held regularly in Massachusetts and New York; and the National Conference grows every year in numbers and in importance. Each year, too, the literature is increasingly practical, and more thorough study precedes the reports.

April 15, 1915.

RECENT PARK REPORTS[1]

BY F. L. MULFORD[2]
Washington, D. C.

IN ORDER to get a basis from which to judge the value of work done or not done by the different park departments, as recorded in their various reports, it may be well to crystallize some of the purposes and needs for a park, so that the relation that should exist between a municipality, its citizens, and its parks, may be kept in mind. An old idea of the use of parks is as a place of recreation or re-creation. In the days of small cities and much open country, this meant usually a place of pleasing geometrical design, ornamented by trees, shrubs, and tender plants, where one might sit quietly on stiff benches along the walks and on some occasions hear music discoursed from the ornate steeple of a band stand. The grass was to be looked at, the walks were for promenades, and the flower beds to be noticed. The wide-awake active part of the community naturally took to the open country.

In his report to the *Hartford* park commissioners Superintendent George A. Parker says:

> Recreation is that part of leisure time, which is used by the individual or the community in nature's own way; for development between the ages of birth and 14; for construction between 14 and 21; for formation between 21 and 28; and for maintenance and renewal of the elasticity of life afterwards, which monotonous work or business tends to destroy. . . . If this definition is right, "Then recreation is a matter which concerns all ages and conditions, and is not limited to children as it seems to be considered by many."

He then calls attention to the relative superiority of country influences in the past in producing fully developed men and women, and predicts the time must come when the reverse is true, and states that when it is accomplished "the recreation problem of the cities will have been solved." He then states the following eight "laws" governing recreation as related to cities.

> 1. If the opportunities for recreation are provided to meet the needs of the people, they will be used up to the full extent of the people's need.
> 2. The variety and amount of recreation facilities needed is quite constant with each group of people living under similar conditions, and varies but little in groups of ten thousand.
> 3. The recreation desired by any condition or class of people will be

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[1] Mainly based on the reports for 1913.—EDITOR.

[2] Of the Bureau of Plant Industry.

supplementary and complimentary to their daily work and education, and while varying much as to groups, is quite constant within each group.

4. If play facilities are provided too abundantly or not sufficiently to meet the people's needs, the group as a whole is weakened. There is a proportion or balance between their needs and the means of satisfying them that will give the greatest strength and the best results.

5. If any particular kind of recreation is provided in too great abundance, it will become stale and little used. If not enough, it will cause discord.

6. As a machine out of balance causes friction, unnecessary wear and cost to run, and in the end may destroy itself, so play facilities out of balance cause trouble, are costly, and the facilities provided are often destroyed. Generally, when there is discord or destruction in recreation or park work, it is because they are out of balance, and the cause and remedy lie with the superintendent rather than with those in attendance.

7. Every muscle, organ, function or attribute of the human being needs relaxation and recreation, and for each of these needs there are conditions or appliances to satisfy them. It is for the city to know and provide the opportunity.

8. In the country each home provides its own water supply, sanitary conditions and recreation. Whether good or bad the individual was responsible, but in the city the individual cannot provide those things separately. It is a community interest, and the community as a whole is responsible whether they be good or bad, and it is responsible for recreation the same as it is for water, sewerage, and the streets.

He expresses himself clearly as being in favor of "free play" and opposed to "directed play." He considers the latter a contradiction of terms, and supports his stand. He shows, too, the influence for good of the newly established playgrounds in a congested district from the viewpoint of a business man overlooking backyards from his place of business, from that of the policeman, and from that of a mother.

The relation of the park department as custodian of the parks to the erection of tenement or apartment houses in a neighborhood, is pertinently discussed and is worthy of consideration by city legislators everywhere. The fact that such developments may materially increase the cost of city functions per capita is seldom considered. The differences of the possible differing needs of recreational facilities in various localities is also suggested.

In the report of the progress of park work in *Spokane, Washington*, there is a graphic picture of the unsatisfactory results in the administration of park work when put in the hands of paid elective officers, political expediency being paramount to efficiency and the public interest. In 1907, a city beautiful committee was instrumental in having established a park commission of ten men, each serving for ten years. As it is usually conceded by those who have had experience that it takes at least two or three years for a new park commissioner to come to a realization of park requirements, especially in maintenance, the value of this arrangement is apparent. These commissioners serve without pay and outline policies for a paid executive. In addition, the wise provision for a minimum park tax levy of one mill on the valuation, entirely under the control of the board, was adopted. The usefulness of many a good commission is nullified by dependence upon a city council for all funds for maintenance, as well as extension and improvement. It requires of commissioners, so placed, that they be good politicians in order to get the money as well as good park men in order to spend it wisely. A minimum park fund will enable a park commission to maintain the parks through a period of apathy or antagonism of the law-making body till the public have a chance to express their desires in the matter. In 1910, a commission form of government was established, but the park commission was wisely continued. Under the present commission, park acreage has been increased from 173.1 acres to 1,934 acres. The work accomplished and the method of doing are well brought out. The report of the landscape architects on a park system for the city makes interesting reading. The discussion of street trees, extra care on streets, art commissions, park areas, and the need for large parks in small cities are especially to be noted. The relation of 62 persons to an acre of park places the city stand well in the lead in park area per capita. The cost of maintenance per capita is 66 cents, and the cost per acre $41.68.

In the report of 1913 for *Portland, Oregon,* is a clear statement of two opposing policies of park development; the one on permanent lines only, with consequent frequent delays and lack of benefit to an impatient public; the other development for immediate use, often followed by excessive maintenance charges. The policy of immediate development of a portion of the park on permanent lines is suggested as the best policy.

The relation of park playgrounds to school playgrounds is discussed and a suggestion made that the grounds for the smaller children could more suitably be provided in connection with school houses while park departments could devote their energies to the larger grounds. More cooperation is urged between school boards and park departments.

A very strong plea is presented for town-planning well in advance of actual development. The report considers that a so-called parkway that is only a tree lined street is a parkway in name only, and for the purposes of a parkway is not worth spending money upon. An interesting definition of parks states:

> That to many minds parks are merely land any size, any location, any or no development and with or without gardening, play features, drives, and walks. On the contrary let it be affirmed that park systems are justifiable to a community by serving in their natural aspect or by arrangements of natural vegetation and earth surface, as a safety valve to offset the artificialities of urban life, or in other words, as a health measure in conserving and restoring health.

There was much parkway construction during the year, and additional facilities were provided in the various parks, including several comfort stations, and a new playground was established at Mt. Tabor. Three miles of the 1,000 miles of streets in the city were planted with street trees during the year. A recommendation that forty miles of streets be planted with trees every year was ably supported. The financial statement is concise and gives more of value than is often given in many pages of figures. A further analysis of them giving expenditures for different items in the maintenance would have greatly increased the value of this portion of the report.

St. Louis is making strides toward reclaiming her park system from being an ornamental appendage of the old type to a living, vital unit in the life of the people. Many new features making the parks more useful to the people have been added. One of the largest undertakings of the year was the opening and operating of a new bathing pool. The usual attenders at the old bath house came about five blocks, though some come five miles, though not working nearer, and to the Fairground pool some even came 15 miles. The cost of maintenance was .022 per person attending. The playground attendance was two and three tenths million at a per capita cost of upkeep of 1.2 cents.

Commissioner Dwight F. Davis considers it bad public policy to buy parks and school buildings and then use to capacity only part of the time. Since 1875, $675,000 from improvement bonds have been spent on parks; $2,750,000 are now being asked for this purpose. The practice has been instituted of gathering the flower beds together and substituting shrubs for the tender plants. Sheep are being used on the lawns in Forest park.

The playground report discusses the location of new playgrounds and gives as the three helps used in determining the location, density of population map, juvenile court record, and location of schools. As a demonstration of the way playgrounds influence neighborhood spirit, the incident was cited of how the people got together and held a lantern party under the municipal bridge, the Sunday night after the announcement that the grounds were to be used as a playground. There had been no neighborhood spirit in evidence in that community before.

The yearly attendance at the different playgrounds varied from one person for every 10 square feet of ground to 130 persons for the same area. The average was four persons for every 10 square feet. There was a municipal Christmas tree in the heart of the city with appropriate dances and exercises. Co-operation and public spirit were shown by the nearby merchants and businessmen loaning dressing rooms and consenting to traffic diversion for the period of the celebration.

In *Minneapolis*, the land acquisitions for the rounding out of the park system have largely been acquired though more playgrounds and small areas here and there are considered desirable for completing details. There are now one acre of parks for every 73 persons. One mill on the assessed valuation is the minimum to be devoted to park purposes. This allows a good maintenance of the 3,783 acres, and some for betterments, although these are few compared with the needs for completing the system as already designed. The cost of maintenance per acre is $30.48.

One of the most notable achievements of the year was the establishment of a garden in connection with the meeting of the Society of American Florists and Ornamental Horticulturists. It was a trade display of plants, but was such a success and met with such public favor that it is to be continued in a somewhat modified form. The interesting suggestion was made in connection with Loring park that it would be well to spend more for lighting and less for police.

The financial statements in this report are both illuminating and concise. The analysis of the expenditure for both maintenance and improvement is helpful to the student of such matters. It is to be commended that so many park departments are presenting their finances in this way in the recent reports. An interesting table of the cost of street tree planting is presented. The average cost of watering is 29 cents per tree; cost of trees, 88 cents; average total cost of tree, planting and year's care $5.55. There are 301 miles of street trees in the city, of which more than two thirds have been planted by the city.

The new city entrance, known as the Gateway, is being developed as an impressive and useful improvement near the railroad depots. Bathing facilities are taxed to their utmost and enlarged facilities had to be provided for boat landing. Boat rentals returned a profit to the city. The refectories are operated by the park department and the question was discussed whether a refectory that did not pay a profit should not be discontinued, or the character of the service be changed to make it self-sustaining, with the conclusion for the latter proposition.

The *Madison, Wisconsin,* report of the Park and Pleasure Drive Association for 1914 represents a unique picture of public spirit and generosity on the part of a comparatively few individuals, though no credit is expressed in the report for any unusual merit. In many cities, the movement for better park facilities has been started by a voluntary organization making the study of conditions and possibilities through qualified experts, and then putting the conclusions before the public and asking them to act. At Madison, the association, sustained largely through public subscription, has opened and developed pleasure drives about the lakes near Madison. It has studied the recreation problem and has the administration of the park funds for improving and maintaining the different parks in Madison, councils appropriating the money and designating the association as the agency for administering the funds. One of the interesting accomplishments was the completion of a driveway about Lake Menona by co-operating with the state highway department and getting it to open a road along the shore through some properties that the association could not acquire as it had no power to open any road, except by the unanimous consent of the property owners. The refreshment privilege was operated by the association in the parks and the net proceeds paid for eight concerts. The city council appropriated almost one and one-half mills of the tax rate for park purposes.

Detroit, seems to center its interests and service on Bell Isle park and the water privilege there. No comment is made on the large revenue from the boat houses and the great use of boating privileges it indicates, while quite a point is made that this large park with its thousands of visitors had its tennis courts increased to *six*. Only $197 were spent for playground apparatus. The city has 492 people to each acre of park and the maintenance per acre is $364.46. The number of people per acre of park is almost seven times as much as in Minneapolis; the maintenance over 10 times as much per acre. Considerable space is taken in the report with a discussion of additional bridge facilities for the present crowded park, while no suggestion is made of the possibilities of securing other parks to distribute the crowds and relieve the congestion and better serve the people as a whole. Lack of continuity of policy, owing to the possibility of a complete reversal with the advent of each new commissioner may be responsible for this state of affairs.

In *Chicago*, the West park system has added a new park of 160 acres, known as Warren woods, but has no money to develop it. In the past, assessments have been made to cover improvements on boundary roads and the portions of these funds remaining unexpended after the work was done, were returned to the property owners. A study of delinquency near the playgrounds in the more congested neighborhoods compared with similar neighborhoods without playgrounds has led to the conclusion that the lessening of delinquency within a half mile radius of the playground is enough to pay the interest on the park investment. Pages of valuable space are taken with the names of firms receiving warrants and the amounts, but no adequate presentation of the cost of the various services rendered the public. This is typical of the reports issued by many cities.

In the South park system, the principal attention has been given to maintenance, there being little improvement work in progress. The teaching of English is considered as a recreational feature of the playgrounds, as are also talks on civic matters. The thought is expressed that political lectures should be allowed, but not partisan ones. The new parks do not have concentrated apparatus frames, the elements being more widely scattered. Swings are included in the men's gymnasia. In the road maintenance, light road oil has been found more satisfactory than the heavier oils.

At *Racine, Wisconsin,* a record of the attendance at the playgrounds was kept, which showed 1,613 came one-fourth mile, 705, one-half mile, 456, three-fourths mile, and 366, one mile. The work of park acquisition was started while other improvements were in progress, but it went right ahead. The importance of the need of acquiring boulevards for future development is emphasized. Suggestions are made of the importance of making a city plan. The city has provision of a one-mill tax for parks. The expenditures are presented in a classified table.

The *Rockford* (*Illinois*) park district reported the beginning of its own refectory service. It was conducted at a slight loss, but it was felt that it would be retrieved another year, and the service had given such satisfaction that it was warranted. Many of the plantings have been made with the direct object of attracting the birds.

The report of *Houston, Texas,* is a full report of the landscape designer on a park system for the city, together with other related details of a city plan and development suggestions. The city is evidently most fortunate in having a good deal of cheap land along the river near the heart of the city that can yet be acquired for public breathing spaces. Interesting tables on land values are included as well as studies on the ratios of white and negro population in succeeding decades, and the provisions necessary to accommodate the people as the city develops. For the administration of the park system a single executive, responsible only to a park board, was recommended.

In the report of the *New York* park commission, a high tribute was paid to the interest of Mayor Gaynor in the parks and their development, and credit given for a progressive improvement policy. Credit was also given his successor for continuing the policy. This by intimation shows the weakness of a system that makes it possible for a new man to entirely change the policy of a public service like parks every four years. A park, or a park system, cannot be built by fits and starts, but requires a continuous constructive policy. Sewers, water pipes, paving, and sub-ways, can be extended by spurts, and then partially neglected without ruinous results. Trees and shrubs need constant sympathetic treatment and four years of partial neglect may destroy 50 years of effort.

A marked contrast is given in this report of two methods of handling public buildings. Brooklyn is constructing its museums on a tract of land adjoining its park, but separated from it by a street that makes it impossible that the land should ever be an integral part of the park, while Manhattan has and is taking land from the people's outdoors that should be their playground, instead of a museum. Pretentious plans have been prepared for the land along the Hudson river in front of Riverside drive, and considerable progress has been made toward its preliminary development. Among the features planned are a formal city entrance, a harbor, and landing for boats, an athletic field, and stadium that will be useful not only in connection with events in the stadium, but also for river reviews, and two covered landings for the loading of city refuse.

The report records much improvement in road surfacings, the renewal of shrubbery plantations, the addition of playgrounds and parks, and efforts at parkway extensions, one of the latter connecting the parks of the Boro of Queens with the eastern parkway. There has been long delay with this extension because of its passing through a cemetery. The report of the commissioner for the Boro of Queens presents a strong plea for municipal control of recreation. At the new Gaynor park on the shore at Hell Gate a provision for bathing has been planned in a bay inside the general line of the sea wall. This is doubly important at this point because of the swift current. The cost of golf maintenance in this same system is given as $3.26 per player.

The report of the *Boston* metropolitan park commission gives inspiration by reports of continued parkway extensions, at least part of which are designed to facilitate general traffic communication between the towns concerned as well as pleasure driving on the appropriate reservations. It is hard to realize the ultimate benefit of the continued efforts of such a commission especially when it operates through a number of separate political units. Reports from all the bath houses show inadequate facilities for present demands, and the houses arranged to care for the maximum of which they are capable.

The report of the commissioners of the state reservation at *Niagara Falls* shows that the terms of four of the five commissioners expired that year, an unfortunate situation for the good of the park. Much space is given to a report of the legislation for the control of Niagara showing well the unsatisfactoriness of a lack of permanent conservative policy in this connection.

In *Fall River, Massachusetts,* the state law requiring a playground for every 20,000 population is evidently being perfunctorily supported by the people. Apparently, there is little popular support or enthusiasm for the work being accomplished, though the officials are being educated in more than the letter of the law.

MUNICIPAL RECREATION—A REVIEW OF RECENT LITERATURE

BY ROWLAND HAYNES[1]

New York

THE Springfield recreation survey[2] is one part of a general social survey of the city conducted by the Russell Sage Foundation. It is significant for two things. First, it shows the recreation needs in a city which is not crowded, and hence does not have those needs thrust upon the attention as a result of evident congestion. Second, it presents the facts in an interesting and convincing way. It gives more than dry statistics. It gives meanings and suggestions in a vivid form. By clippings from local papers showing adult crimes and juvenile delinquencies it shows evidence of costly break-downs in character which might have been prevented by wholesome recreation.

Studying the plan of the book as a whole we find that it is topical rather than quantitative, that it considers the needs suggested by a study of the facilities where recreation is furnished such as homes, schools, parks, streets, library, museum, clubs and commercial recreation places, rather than the amount of public recreation required by different groups such as grade school children, high school children, young working people and adults. This topical method is a strength rather than a weakness because it enables the authors to present, in the final chapter, a recreation program giving an outline of what should be done in the way of school playgrounds, park athletic fields, public school athletic league, social centers, municipal athletic league, boy scout local council and public celebrations committees. Since it does not attempt to measure the amount of recreation not now furnished, and hence needed, it does not suggest in the program the relative importance of the various steps and which should come first. The program outlines a policy of development for indoor and outdoor facilities, a policy for public administration, and a policy for private co-operative agencies, such as athletic leagues and an advisory committee on recreation. The report states that part of the administrative plan suggested is purely local because of local conditions. The policies on some of the private co-operative agencies are of more than local value and are helpfully supplemented by information in the appendix as to where further details may be obtained from other cities.

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[1] Field Secretary, Playground and Recreation Association of America.

[2] Recreation in Springfield, Illinois. By Lee F. Hamner and Clarence Arthur Perry. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 25 cents.

To those interested in the technique of recreation surveys the statistical tables will be suggestive, especially tables 3 and 4 showing average number of times per week high school pupils attend motion picture shows, theatres, dances and home parties. These tables also show that parties are not often held in over half the homes of the high school young people, while over 60 per cent of those who attend dances do so at hotels and public halls, rather than in private houses.

Tables 1 and 2 show forms of recreation reported by elementary school children during their spring vacation. These tables indicate forms of recreation which left the most impression on these children, but do not show which occupy the most hours of their recreation life. Thus a boy might play baseball six times and yet this would appear only once in the tabulation, while a boy who played baseball once, went fishing once, and read a book once would affect the record three times, although he might not have had as many hours of recreation as the first boy. In short these two tables show the recreation repertoire of these children, but do not show how much time they were loafing or how much of their recreational life was taken by any particular form.

In table 5 on per capita play space in school yards, it would be helpful to know whether "Free space" means area of lots minus area of buildings, or whether walks, lawns and embankments shown in the pictures of school properties, were also subtracted to give usable free space since the distribution of play areas affects practical availability.

One of the very helpful features of the report is the pictures and sample plans. One of the pictures of a school yard, ample in area, but with the children all crowded on the walks because of the mud, is a powerful argument on the vital character of surfacing in the efficiency return of a play space.

To the Springfield authorities were submitted, with the report, plans for lay-out of each school yard. Two of these plans appear in the report. They are admirable in being put in birdseye form readily comprehensible to any one. One of the plans shown will raise a question with some students as to whether it does not call for an over use of apparatus. The plot left for play contains a little over an acre. The plan calls for 32 swings, three slides, four teeters, two giant strides, sand box, jumping pit, parallel bars, climbing and outdoor gymnasium outfit. The only games specially provided for are in basket-ball court, which will handle ten children and a tennis court which will handle four children at one time. There is not enough space left for any but ring games. Used to its limit it would handle about 175 children at one time of which over two thirds would be engaged in individual play on apparatus and about one third in team games.

The Portland study[3] was made with the help of sixty investigators who were students, teachers, business and professional men and social workers. It covers 51 moving picture houses and four vaudeville shows visited during a series of weeks in 1914. The study covers the attendance of school children—where the facts taken by the investigators were supplemented by replies from 2,647 school children representing all grades in five elementary grades—and the moral quality of the films and vaudeville acts.

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[3] Vaudeville and Motion Picture Shows—A Study of Theatres in Portland, Oregon. By William T. Foster. Portland: Reed College Record.

The facts on attendance of elementary school children show frequency of attendance and age of children attending. It was found that 70 per cent of the grammar school children attended vaudeville shows sometimes, and 24 per cent once a week or oftener, and that 90 per cent attend motion picture shows sometimes and 68 per cent once a week or oftener. This part of the study was confined to a group of children over 91 per cent of whom were under fifteen years of age. This emphasizes the fact that the attendance on motion picture shows is a big item in the life of children. No figures of total attendance on the moving picture shows studied are given so it cannot be learned what per cent of the moving picture and vaudeville manager's business comes from children.

The preferences, 3,533 in all, of these children for different kinds of motion pictures are tabulated, but do not permit of much quantitative information because the classifications are mixed between dramatic types, manufacturers and single titles, owing to misunderstanding by children of meaning of "kind—you like best" in the questionnaire. It is significant, however, that nearly a third call for pictures of action and adventure, that this type of picture is demanded by twice as many boys as girls, that nearly another third call for comedy and that this type is about equally demanded by boys and girls.

The estimates of the investigators as to the moral quality of the exhibitions are not tabulated to show per cent found good or bad, but extracts from the investigators' reports are given grouped as to most favorable and most unfavorable. The study gives suggestions for regulation of both vaudeville and motion picture shows, pointing out the need of a national board of censorship for vaudeville acts something like that for moving pictures, and the further need of local boards to supplement and enforce the recommendations of the national board. The lack of anything in many of the shows which was good or even entertaining for children is used to point the need of special plays and programs for children, and censoring of vaudeville acts and films as good or bad for children and also as good or bad for adults.

A bulletin of the Milwaukee City Club deals with amusements and recreation enumerating the different recreation opportunities in private clubs, commercial resorts, philanthropic agencies and municipal recreation system found in Milwaukee, and tries to estimate what proportion of certain parts of the problem is being met. It calculates that only one sixth of the boy problem is reached by agencies of all kinds, public and private; that 5 per cent of the dancing is in social centers and settlements, while the rest is in halls, of which over one third are classed as beer halls. It finds the public recreation system efficient so far as it goes, but asks that it be enabled to do more.

"A Public Recreation System for Newark" has been prepared by the city plan commission; but it "is not a 'recreation survey,' but a brief review, from the city planning standpoint, of the value of a comprehensive system of public recreation." It first presents arguments to show the need of adequate public recreation work. "A high moral death rate is as disgraceful as a high physical death rate." Lack of facilities results in idleness and over indulgence in passive recreation in moving picture shows and similar forms. Two wards are shown to be each as large as certain cities, but cramped within less than half a square mile, lacking in play facilities and surrounded by congested districts while the smaller cities with which they are compared cover an ample area, have parks and play areas, and are surrounded by the open country. The recreation work of each of three independent agencies in the city, the school board, playground commission and county park commission is sketched and the passage of legislation making possible the creation of a recreation commission to co-ordinate and extend all this work is recommended.

Mr. Edward's book[4] aims to present the recreation problem in the form of a reading text-book for the use of groups interested in studying various community problems. It also is of value to the individual reader who wishes to study the relation of municipal recreation systems to the problem of which a municipal system is one solution.

The book considers, first the problem of popular amusements, then proposed solutions, finally suggestions for community action. Under the problem, the extent, characteristics and moral influence of each of five types of amusements, "dramatic, social rendezvous, athletic, special places, and special events," are presented in order.

The chief evils found in the amusement problem are professionalism, commercialism and immorality. Spectatoritis, or the danger of professionalism, lies in that growing torpor wherein "the spontaneity of playful activities, and the originality which creates them are being lulled to sleep by the habit of being amused" instead of "making one's own fun." The danger of commercialism lies in the domination of the money element which stands "for the exploitation of human life, not for its service."

The proposed solutions are classified under restrictive and constructive public opinion. Restriction takes the form of agitation, governmental regulation, legal prosecution and increased legislation. Its application to the evils of each of the five types of amusement is briefly sketched. Constructive public opinion goes at the source of the evils while restrictive public opinion merely maintains external order and decency. The efforts of constructive public opinion are seen in the gospel of play, in drama leagues and societies, endowed and civic theatres, social settlements, churches, christian associations, social centers, parks, playgrounds, public recreation systems and movements for the rational celebration of holidays.

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[4] Popular Amusements. By R. H. Edwards. New York: Association Press, $1.

This is the most complete manual covering the entire problem which has appeared. It does not profess originality in presenting any new facts on the problem. It does, however, show marked originality in its logical arrangement, in its teaching helps, its questions, its anticipatory and concluding summaries, bibliographies and in the practical aim to help to definite action. Each chapter is followed by an annotated bibliography and by suggestions for thought and discussion.

One of the phases of the leisure time problem fails of emphasis, namely the waste of millions of hours by children and young people who are loafing, loitering on the street through much of their leisure time. They are not subject to the evils of the dramatic type of amusements for they are not attending even a moving picture show, nor to the evils of the social rendezvous type, for they spend only part of their time in dance halls, pool rooms and hangouts. Since studies in cities of various sizes have shown from a half to three-quarters of the children out doors, out of school hours to be on the streets, and from one-third to two-thirds of them doing nothing, since the same waste is found also with young people beyond school age, the importance of this phase of the problem is apparent.

Public recreation is to be specially treated by Dr. Curtis in a later volume of the series of which this is the first, but this volume,[5] although primarily on play in its place in educational theory and school administration, contains several suggestions on the municipal problem.

Dr. Curtis believes that the play of children is the chief play problem of cities, and that it is fundamentally a school problem. He does not believe that municipal playgrounds administered by other than school authorities can reach any considerable portion of the children for any large part of their play life. A school playground run on the Gary plan of serial use by a number of classes is his solution. He feels, however, that there should be more play leadership than at Gary, which system he says has introduced "play time into the curriculum, but not play," because the lengthened play time at Gary is used after the style of the oldfashioned recess with the addition of physical trainers. He would co-ordinate school and park playgrounds by having the nearby parks used as playgrounds by the schools on the alternating Gray program, the leadership being under the teacher handling play in the school curriculum.

In the chapter on the school as a social center, adult uses of school buildings for educational, recreational, and civic purposes are summarized. Hints on financial support are given in quotations from the work at Hartford, Conn., where refectories and checking privileges are made to return revenue for public recreation, and from the experience of the Brooklyn Institute in supporting six social centers on excess profits of moving picture shows run as part of their activities.

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[5] Education Through Play. By Henry S. Curtis. New York: The Macmillan Company, $1.50.

The purpose of the Forbush book[6] is to help parents in developing home recreation. It touches the problem of municipal recreation only in its discussion of the limitations of public playgrounds in developing the initiative possible to children playing by themselves in their own back yards or vacant lots. He calls the public playground at its best "a makeshift or substitute for the private back yard."

In this connection it should be remembered first that the public playground is a substitute, not for the private back yard, but for the street. Studies which have now been made in a number of cities show that from 50 per cent to 90 per cent of the children outdoors after school are not in their private yards or vacant lots, but are on the streets. Second, the public playground is a substitute in some neighborhoods for back yards which do not exist. In one neighborhood in one city it was found that the back yards and vacant lots if used to the limit could handle 216 of the 1,272 children in the district. The balance, over 80 per cent, had to play in the street or go out of the district or go indoors or not play at all, which last was what over half of them were doing. Third, the public playground tries, often very imperfectly, to give the tactful, suggestive, leadership which parents are not giving or cannot give to the play of their children. Many parents do not appreciate the importance of their own possible contribution to the play life of their children. Such parents Mr. Forbush's book should help immensely by opening their eyes and giving them workable suggestions. But many fathers have to be away from home nine tenths of the play hours of their children and many mothers either work out or are overburdened with housework. Such parents will have to depend on the public playground or let their children run the streets, or, what is worse, loaf on the streets. Every thoughtful play leader would like to leave the entire play problem to the intelligent and time-taking supervision of parents, but since that often cannot be done, the public playground looks like a permanent substitute for the many children who have not been fortunate in their selection of well-to-do parents.

The reader naturally looks for the treatment of recreation in the chapter on civic protection in recreation in Mrs. Bowen's book.[7] But in addition to this chapter there are numerous illustrations under the sections on legal protection industry and protection against illegal discrimination. One of the most cruel things about the low wages and excessive hours in many industries is that they make nervous wrecks for lack of sufficient rest, which the long hours prevent, and for the lack of wholesome recreation, which the low wages do not permit. Again, Mrs. Bowen classifies the delinquent children of immigrants, first as those who go wrong to get a desired result, often money for amusement, and second, those who go wrong to get excitement. Both suffer because they are robbed of normal recreation.

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[6] Manual of Play. By William Byron Forbush. Philadelphia: Geo. W. Jacobs & Co., $1.50.

[7] Safeguards for City Youth at Work and at Play. By Louise DeKoven Bowen. New York: The MacMillan Company, $1.50 net. See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iv, p. 332.

"From the very beginning it was obvious that the majority of children fell into difficulties through their search for recreation." The chapter on recreation sketches the dangers found by the Chicago juvenile protective league in the poor lighting, glaring posters, and amateur night features of theatres and moving picture shows. It also details their efforts in improving dance halls, pool rooms and excursion boats, by co-operation with the owners and prosecution of offenders. The steps of the fight against the gambling-habit-forming slot machines so largely patronized by children are also set down. The convincing feature about the book is the fact that it is founded on case work. With pitiless insistence story after story is given of individual cases of delinquency or misfortune or injustice until the suggestions for control and improvement are seen to be based on actual needs.

The paper on the management of public baths read by William H. Hale, superintendent of public baths in Brooklyn, before the American Association for Promotion of Hygiene and Public Baths, recommends land swimming pools in place of river bathing places in New York because they can be used the year round while the lined river pools, made necessary by board of health's prohibition of river bathing, cost a large sum and can be used only in warm months. Water filtration, precipitation with alum where necessary, and sterilization by measured drip of liquified chlorine is recommended. Sterilizing by ultraviolet rays is considered practical, but too expensive. The movement, for sanitary reasons, of nude bathing at all public pools, is endorsed.

On the administrative side the author insists on the right of employes of baths to one day of rest in seven. On construction of shower baths, marble partitions are shown to be costly because the stone disintegrates. Alberene, a slate-colored stone, for the same purpose is found durable, but absorbs grease and quickly becomes black. The waste of hot water is to be reduced either by attendants who allow so much hot water to each bather or by having baths used in relays with hot water turned off between shifts.

MUNICIPAL DANCE HALLS

BY FREDERICK REX

Chicago[1]

IN THE effort to provide places where young men and women may gather for purposes of social recreation under wholesome auspices, a considerable number of cities in the United States have established social centers in the public schools and park field houses. Here people may enjoy facilities for play, amusement or rest, such as social dancing, banquets, social entertainments, parties, and the like.

Properly conducted dance halls meet a public need and a number of cities have established municipal dance halls and open public dances. The object has been to provide for certain sections of the city, halls where opportunities for participation in wholesome recreation would be offered to all classes of people, young, middle-aged, and old.

The cities that have established municipal dance halls are emphasizing first, adequate supervision and chaperonage; second, public opportunities for dancing that cost less than the commercialized enterprises; third, sanitary, well-ventilated, and well-lighted halls; fourth, the sale of no liquor but the supply instead of cold drinking water and soft drinks; fifth, high grade music and the prohibition of objectionable dancing.

Since last autumn the park and recreation department of Boston has been conducting municipal dances in the city gymnasia. These dances are free, the cost of maintenance and operation being borne by the city. Dances have been given at the rate of one each week from 8 to 10:30 p.m. Owing to their success and popularity with the masses, plans are being made to conduct three or more weekly.

Chicago has a large number of public schools and park field houses which are used for social centers and are supported and directed by the school and park authorities. Social dances, arranged and conducted by clubs or groups in their immediate, or from distant, neighborhoods, are held with considerable frequency. Greater interest attaches to these dances than to any other form of social enjoyment. No admission fees are charged and in the park field houses various groups and persons are given the use of the halls in rotation for dances. No group or person is permitted to conduct a dance for profit or as a business enterprise.

These public dances conducted under the auspices of its public school and park boards are entirely dissimilar and should be distinguished from open public dances where girls may go unattended, which are open to any individual without qualification or classification except restriction as to age and personal behavior, and which are a source of revenue to the municipality.

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[1] Municipal Reference Librarian.

On March 9, 1914, Mayor Carter H. Harrison, of Chicago, sent a communication to the council urging the establishment of municipal dance halls by the municipality in which, under proper auspices and with proper chaperonage, young men and women could gather for purposes of recreation. He suggested that these municipal dance halls be established in the various sections of the city. The council, in pursuance of Mayor Harrison's communication, readily gave the authority and necessary funds for the establishment of dance halls by the city. The sum of $5,000 was appropriated and halls were rented in each section of the city.

A large number of women's clubs were invited to name representatives to act as chaperons at these dances and allowed to use their own discrimination and judgment as to proper and improper conduct and dancing. The first municipal dance was given in December under the supervision of the Department of Public Welfare in Dreamland Hall, located in the heart of Chicago's great west side. The grand march was led by Mayor and Mrs. Harrison in the presence of seven thousand dancers and onlookers. The dance was pronounced an unqualified success.

During the past winter forty-three dances were given, with a total attendance of 17,000. The paid admissions ran as follows:

December	$1,794.55
January	406.05
February	409.15
Total	$2,609.75

During the administration of Mayor Hunt in Cincinnati a municipal dance hall was opened, under the supervision and direction of the woman's civic commission. The first dance was held April 12, 1913. Dances are now given every Saturday night and on all holidays, in the north wing of the local music hall, the latter being a large brick building. The dimensions of the dance floor are 85 x 280 feet, or an area of 23,800 square feet. The cost of equipping the hall was between $300 and $400, not including the purchase of a piano. The hall is lighted by incandescent electricity and windows, and two large double exit doors afford additional means of ventilation. The hall has comfort stations and rest rooms.

A caterer serves refreshments, consisting of soft drinks and ice cream, in connection with the dance hall, allowing the city a percentage on the number of his sales, in return for the concession.

An orchestra of four pieces composed of piano, drum, and first and second violins, furnishes the music. An admission fee of fifteen cents per person is charged, which includes the use of the wardrobe room for checking wraps and other personal apparel. No return checks are given. The charge of admission has been placed at a minimum consistent with the expense of conducting the dance.

The dances are under the supervision of two paid supervisors, assisted by from six to eight volunteers. A policeman in regular uniform is stationed at the door and frequently an officer in plain clothes mingles among the dancers. The operating staff consists of a manager, cashier, ticket taker, six check boys and a maid.

The dance hall is open to the public every Saturday night from 8:00 to 11:30 o'clock and a children's dance is given on Saturday afternoons during the hours from 2:00 to 5:00 o'clock. Minors are not admitted to the evening dances unless they are at least sixteen years of age. The dance hall is entirely self-supporting.

Twenty-two dances were given by the municipality during the year 1913 and the total revenue and expense from their operation was as follows:

		Average per dance
Revenue.............	$2,285.55	$103.88
Expense.............	2,226.80	101.21

The total number of persons attending the twenty-two dances was 14,153, or an average of 643 persons per dance.

The municipal dances have demonstrated that young people prefer going to a place adequately supervised, with clean and wholesome surroundings. They feel absolutely safe in attending and in many instances the parents accompany the boys and girls. Girls come, dance, and go home together. As a result of the establishment of the municipal dance hall, other dance halls in the city are exercising a stricter supervision. Recently a suburb of Cincinnati requested the authorities of the latter city to establish a municipal dance hall within its limits. This has been done, with similar satisfactory results.

The Juvenile Protective Association of Cincinnati in its report on a "recreation survey of Cincinnati" made December 1, 1913, summarized the dance hall situation thus:

> Among the few places which offer opportunity for wholesome pleasure is the "popular supervised dance" conducted every Saturday evening in the north wing of music hall by the Woman's Civic Commission. Although the admission charge is only fifteen cents, when at the other halls it is a quarter, the dance is self-supporting. A good band provides the music; members of the Commission supervise in person, and ice cream and soft drinks can be secured at one end of the hall. No return checks are given. This dance is patronized largely by people who never attended public dances before, and does not really compete with the bad commercial dance halls. Nevertheless, it is a splendid public experiment and meets a need in the community.

While the school board of Cleveland was debating the question of providing municipal dance halls in the school auditoriums throughout the city, objection being made that an admission fee could not be charged for functions in school buildings, Mayor Baker, inasmuch as no city ordinance was required, issued an executive order authorizing municipal dances in the park shelter houses.

The first municipal dance hall was inaugurated in August, 1912, in Edgewater Park, the latter having Lake Erie on one side and on the other a congested manufacturing and tenement district not far distant from immense ore docks. Mayor and Mrs. Baker led the grand march at the opening ceremony, followed by their children and municipal officials. The first dance was pronounced a tremendous success, 11,630 three-cent dance tickets being sold, making the receipts for the day $348.90. The estimated maximum expenses for one week are $300. One ticket seller on the opening night sold 2,700 tickets in an hour. Another dance hall has since been opened at another park shelter house. These shelter houses were converted into dancing pavilions at a very low cost, merely requiring the putting in of maple flooring. The dimensions of the dancing floor at Edgewater Park are 83 x 34 feet and at Woodland Hills Park 76 x 33 feet. The parks being city property, no rental is required.

Park pavilions are brilliantly lighted by electricity. Open air ventilation is provided and revolving fans keep the temperature cool and pleasant. A comfort station has been constructed in the building at Edgewater Park and the comfort stations at Woodland Hills Park are convenient to the pavilion. Refreshments are sold by concessionaires at near-by stands and include soft drinks, ice cream, candy and the like. Drinking fountains are also conveniently located to these buildings. Music is furnished by an orchestra of six musicians, a balcony suitably arranged for the same, as well as a good piano, having been installed at each pavilion.

No general admission is charged, but tickets are sold at the rate of three cents per couple for each dance. A fee of three cents per person covers the checking of wraps, coats and hats, a room sufficiently large to take care of this feature without any confusion having been provided.

Control and supervision over the municipal dance halls is exercised by experienced employes of the park department, a manager, chaperon, ticket takers, policemen and other attendants being detailed at each pavilion. Minors under eighteen years of age, unless accompanied by their parents or responsible chaperons, are excluded after 9.00 p. m.

The receipts and expenses of the two pavilions, with the number of tickets sold and persons participating in the amusement during the years 1912 and 1913, were as follows:

	1912	1913
Total receipts	$7,394.31	$18,491.16
Total expenses	$5,160.02	$11,507.71
Net earnings	$2,234.29	$6,983.45
Tickets sold to couples	246,477	616,732
Persons attending	492,954	1,233,464

The pavilions have proved very successful, both from a social and financial standpoint. They have provided clean, wholesome recreation at a minimum cost and the moral tone of the halls is a great improvement over the ordinary public dance hall. Every possible safeguard has been provided for the proper protection of the patrons. Not only was the very best orchestra employed, but more policemen were secured for supervision of the dance hall and adjoining grounds than the city would have required of any private concern and each dance number was twice as long as the duration of a dance in the commercial dance halls, while the price per dance was but one-half that charged in the latter.

The object in view in establishing the municipal dance halls was to offer an opportunity for dancing under the best possible conditions at a mimimum cost. The young people patronize the dance halls for the reason that here they can spend their evenings at dancing amid wholesome surroundings for a much less sum than it would cost at the ordinary commercial dance hall.

Owing to the great success and the vast amount of good accomplished by the municipal dance halls, there is a strong demand for the erection and operation of such halls during the winter months. This demand has been given added emphasis in view of the closing by the city of thirty-two public dance halls, because the buildings or their surrounding conditions were such as to render them unfit for dance halls. These thirty-two halls eliminated from the dance hall roster were all of the same type, namely, cheap neighborhood, saloon halls. However, the city dance hall inspector of Cleveland, Robert O. Bartholomew, unwilling to ignore the social value of the closed dance halls as neighborhood centers, points out the duty of the community in the premises in the following words:

> In these buildings during the past, small beneficial lodges, neighborhood societies and social clubs would hold their dances on different evenings of the week. They were the neighborhood club houses in the sections of the city where they were located. Here was offered the only opportunity for general gatherings of a social nature which were generally followed by dancing. The entire family participated in these dances which would, but for the demoralizing surroundings, have provided the means by which the citizens living near them could have enjoyed the recreational and social life which is necessary to the wellbeing and proper development of every normal citizen. These halls have been dismantled, and there are now no club houses for many thousands of Cleveland's citizens. We pass legislation prescribing conditions under which man may work to earn his daily bread; we have our model ordinances to regulate

in minute detail the construction of the buildings in which our work is done and we even regulate the construction of the homes in which we live together with all of the elements which enter into general living conditions of our daily life, but until the present ordinance was passed we had neglected to make it our concern as to where or how his hours of recreation are spent. Thus it is no wonder that many have realized large profits by commercializing man's instinct for play. The present regulations have been more or less exterminative in nature. In the endeavor to eliminate the element of commercialism we are on the verge of restricting dancing to the favored few who possess sufficient means to provide for themselves places to dance. The present regulations have necessarily driven out of existence the majority of cheap saloon dance halls. While it has probably been greatly beneficial it has also brought about a problem which the municipal government can alone remedy. The social family life of those living in congested sections of the city has been almost exterminated with reference to dancing. The men now go to the corner saloon for a social evening. The wife possibly visits with a neighborly woman, but there is no place for the family to join in a good time except perhaps the moving picture show, where the period of enjoyment is of short duration and where there is no opportunity for such relaxation from daily cares as is provided in dancing. The average laboring man's neighborhood club cannot afford to rent such a hall as is now offered for the purposes of holding a dance because it costs from $25 to $50 more than it used to cost to rent a cheap hall. There are a very great many citizens who are deprived of their just opportunities for social recreation. Private capital hesitates to establish such halls as it becomes for them an experiment with probable small profits for the investment. Neighborhood dance halls under municipal supervision should be established in several of the congested residence districts of the city. Through the wholesome influence there exerted many individuals would be conserved as positive units in society for helpfulness instead of being allowed to become negative quantities to be neutralized by belated educated or penal reformation.

During the winter of 1912–1913 the commissioner of supplies of Denver arranged for a series of four municipal dances in the city auditorium. An admission fee merely sufficient to defray expenses, of twenty-five cents per couple, was charged. The dances were supervised by Denver's sole woman police officer, who held the position of inspector of amusements. According to this official the dances were a success financially and socially. However, with a change in the city administrative policy and the initiation of the commission form of government last year, municipal dances were discontinued and the city auditorium has again been rented to private parties for public dances. These latter, owing to inadequate supervision, have become discredited and the Woman's Club of Denver has requested that they be stopped.

A municipal dance hall was established and operated by Milwaukee during the administration of Mayor Seidel. Young people were encouraged to attend up to the capacity of the hall and an admission fee of twenty-five cents per couple was charged. The police were instructed to keep out objectionable characters and maintain a proper degree of decorum among those admitted.

These public dances were increasingly successful during their period of existence. However, the municipal election held in 1912 resulted in Mayor Seidel's defeat and under the new administration the dance hall was closed. An attempt was made to have the city continue the venture, but without success.

Municipal dances in the public streets of Redlands, California, were tried last summer by the city, with considerable success. A block of city street was roped off for the purpose and the pavement thoroughly washed and sprinkled. These dances were very popular and the crowd attending was orderly. The music for the dances was furnished by the municipal band.

The board of supervisors of San Francisco in December, 1913, inaugurated a series of outdoor municipal dances. These dances were held on public streets paved with asphalt or bitumen. They are very popular, and owing to the mild winters, the streets set apart for the municipal dances are crowded to capacity. The city furnishes the municipal band and there is an adequate detail of police to maintain order. No admission fee is required from those taking part in the dances. Dancing begins at 8 o'clock in the evening and concludes at 11 o'clock.

The Seattle park board during the past summer held public dances in the field houses at the different playgrounds in connection with its social center work. An admission fee of twenty-five cents was charged and the dances paid for themselves. The municipal dances were subject to the same regulations as were applicable to private dance halls. The dances which have thus far been given have had a large attendance and have been decidedly popular.

There has been considerable agitation in the cities of Los Angeles, California, and Youngstown, Ohio, on the subject of establishing municipal dance halls, the plan in the latter city being to build the dance hall in one of the public parks and to charge a fee of three cents per dance.

From the experience of the cities enumerated above, it is shown that the municipal dance halls have been successful and in the words of Mayor Harrison: "By the establishment of social centers of this character, opportunity is offered to young men and women to indulge in innocent and healthful recreation under suitable auspices."

UNEMPLOYMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES: THE RECORD FOR 1914-15

BY FRANCES A. KELLOR [1]
New York

THE American city has had one dominant, heart-gripping problem this winter—not economy, not administration, not politics, but a problem vitally human and primarily industrial. Has it been equal to the task and is it finished? What have we done about unemployment? To the average citizen, conscious for the first time of an unemployment problem, the spring sunshine means that "it is all over," the "breadliner" has gone to farming, the skilled workman to building, and the immigrant to digging trenches. Only the unemployed themselves and the responsible employer know that this is one of the delusions of sunshine and green grass, and that when men can live without starving and freezing their hardships are not likely to intrude upon their neighbor's happiness.

The question is, has anything been done in the crisis of this winter which will reduce the volume of unemployment, prevent its recurrence or extension and hasten its elimination from social ills.

The aspect which has been most prominent has been the extent of unemployment. An official canvass in Philadelphia showed 200,000 men unemployed; the house-to-house canvass of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company of its policy-holders in New York, thrifty people ordinarily, gave the basis for an estimate of 357,000 men and women out of work in the entire city. This agrees with the 350,000 estimate made by the Brooklyn committee on unemployment. The labor organizations in New York City estimated that 472,102 were either out of work or on part time. In Chicago in January the municipal markets commission estimated 189,866 out of work. A Cleveland survey in December showed 61,000 unemployed; in the same month the city charities in Philadelphia estimated that Philadelphia's unemployed numbered 175,000.

The most careful surveys showed that where there was one man unemployed in 1913-14 there were two unemployed this past winter, and that the increase was from 40 per cent to 50 per cent. Without exaggeration it was conceded by those familiar with conditions that one out of every five bread-winners was unemployed. This unemployment was concentrated in cities primarily, but the small towns and villages also felt the shock and found it necessary to organize relief measures.

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[1] Vice-chairman of the Committee for Immigrants in America. See other articles by Miss Kellor in NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW: "Is Unemployment a Municipal Problem?" vol. iii, p. 366; "Unemployment in Our Cities," vol. iv, p. 69.

In some respects unemployment differed quite radically from that of previous years. At one bound the problem was lifted from the realm of relief into that of industry. Many thousands of able men and women were involuntarily unemployed for the first time in their lives or in many years; the additions to the bread lines were young men with hard hands and clear eyes instead of old men with soft hands or blear-eyed "hoboes"; women joined the ranks of pleaders or became the supporters of the family. At the same time the demonstrations and riots which characterized last winter disappeared, as though some of the sorrow of the war had found its way into the industrial disaster in America.

Of the causes we have learned but little. "The war" is the most common answer; "the administration" is the second best guess; while legislation, monopoly of land, the wage system, tariff, immigration, and the usual popular explanations have not been wanting. It is noteworthy that though there have been many reports by official commissions and private committees, none has yet made a real contribution to the subject of causes. This is partly explained by the fact that the demand for relief has been so widespread and immediate that the formulation of reasons has had to wait; also because those responsible were reluctant to face their own conclusions.

What has been done by the American city to meet unemployment? Despite all appeals to the nation and to the states, it is emphatically clear that it is the city that grappled with the situation in the greatest hour of need.

The national administration met the appeal for a program of employment exchanges, public works and loans with the order that a census be taken to prove the case, but refused an appropriation of $10,000 to have it made. The division of information, utilizing the present idle immigration bureau facilities and staff and the post offices, after endless bickering and red tape, got under way a series of employment exchanges in time to take care of the farm hands needed in the spring. This federal experiment, hopeful as it is, can in no sense be regarded as a complete federal employment system. It combines the facilities of three existing departments and connects the sections of the country in a loose mechanism for distributing labor; but the machinery needed for a nation-wide distributing and employing system must be at once flexible and strong. The business of furnishing information concerning employment is a specialized task of great magnitude; whereas the main energies of the three governmental departments now attempting it are pledged to other services and their officers were selected with other qualifications in mind. A sudden renewal of immigration would strain the federal organization to the breaking point. The *idea* and the experiment constitute a land-mark; but the success of a federal exchange system depends upon the granting of appropriations, the establishment of transportation and loan funds, the planning of national government work to cover dull seasons, and a *system* of distribution to the land. It is a good beginning, but there are as yet few laurels to rest upon.

The federal government made one more contribution to the winter's work—this time in the direction of relief. Beginning in January, it opened Ellis Island to homeless men every night, and permitted the use of federal blankets, cots, and floors for housing 800 men daily. This was an inestimable boon to the unemployed of New York City, especially the unemployed immigrant who fears to approach relief agencies even when he knows where to find them.

State measures have not appreciably affected the situation. New York put into operation very reluctantly and grudgingly the free employment bureaus, authorized by the legislature of 1914, and now has four free bureaus operating. At this writing two bills are awaiting the Governor's signature in Pennsylvania, one for the establishment of state employment bureaus, and the other for the regulation of private agencies. In the California and the New Jersey legislatures bills have been introduced providing for state employment bureaus. The most radical measure passed was "the right to work" bill in Idaho. It provides that any citizen of the United States who has been a resident of Idaho for six months, who does not possess property of more than $1,000 and who is unable to secure other employment must be provided with emergency employment by the commissioners of the county in which he lives. The work may be on the public highways, or of any other kind, and nobody is entitled to more than sixty days of such work in any one year. It is to be noted that the bill is mandatory. A number of other measures have been proposed and defeated. Massachusetts was one of the few states to act in a practical way. An appropriation of $100,000 was made and work provided in various sections of the state, through the state forestry department. The total amount of state relief by legislation is entirely disproportionate to the situation.

The test of meeting a concrete situation has made two things clear. Unemployment is a national situation, involving distribution of an interstate nature and supplemental planning of work of a climatic nature, which is within the province of the federal government and is its immediate duty. It is natural, however, in the absence of vision on the part of the federal government and inability to deal with the situation on the part of the state governments that the cities should have carried the burden and that the average citizen should have shouldered the load for his government. Early last fall it was noticeable that not only the larger cities, but indeed, and perhaps chiefly, the smaller towns realized what the increasing shortage of work would mean during the winter. Interested and persistent effort was made in many cases to hasten or create public work to meet the decrease in private employment. There was much discussion of bond issues, loans, and public works; but the cities and towns that actually had work started upon any considerable scale were, until the opening of spring, few indeed. It was impossible to appropriate or divert funds quickly for many reasons, chiefly lack of precedent and of courage. It was objected that beginning certain kinds of work in the winter would increase the cost of it; that the necessary formalities had not been duly considered; and there were determining differences of opinion between boards of aldermen, controllers and boards of estimate. There were also elaborate debates over whether it was the business of government or of philanthropy to relieve the situation. The traditional municipal emergency measures, such as rock piles and wood piles, hardly left an impression upon the situation. In a small western city, for instance, the officials under the stress of the critical unemployment there arranged to put a rock crusher into operation. It employed 25 men; 1,000 applied for work upon it. Cincinnati, Philadelphia, Boston, Lynn, Providence, Niagara Falls, Pittsburgh, and a long list of other cities and towns made some appropriation with direct reference to work for the unemployed. Cincinnati and Philadelphia are among the few cities that made considerable appropriations for work,[2] New York represented those cities that depended entirely on contributions from citizens.

At least forty cities and towns in the country, and very probably more, had unemployment committees or commissions. Almost half of these were official—"mayor's committees"; a number of others had such close co-operative connection with the city council, the mayor, etc., that although they were nominally citizens committees they had, to all practical purposes, an official influence. They represented chambers of commerce, churches, city departments, charities, clubs, philanthropic organizations of all kinds, and individual citizens.

Most of the committees attempted little beyond immediate relief. Those that began on the other theory, as in New York City, finally saw that the present crisis and a long-time preventive program were not compatible. The New York committee began its emergency workshops about February 1. The thousands that flocked to them eager to work for 50 or 60 cents a day, and the thousands that had to be turned away because of lack of facilities, sufficiently attested the need of this artificial work as a measure of immediate relief. The New York committee did not by any means originate the emergency workshop; it had been adopted early in the winter by the vacation war relief work committee, the Red Cross in Buffalo and Albany, the emergency aid committee in Philadelphia, the Woman's Club in Chicago—also in Kansas City, Cincinnati, and probably on a small scale in many places. The idea is not new; certain churches have used it for years. It is admirably adapted to unemployables, or, better, partially employables. For the employable, it is, by every implication, an emergency measure, to be used only in a crisis.

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[2] Emergency Relief in Philadelphia, by W. Arthur Warner, NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iv, p. 276.

It is impossible to survey in detail the work of these city unemployment commissions of the past winter. They vary greatly. Some of them, it is to be feared, did not get beyond the conference stage, and by spring had accomplished very little for the unemployed, in whose interest they were formed. Even so, they probably did a good deal for their communities and action may later result more speedily because of their existence. Some of the committees have been remarkable for their continuous and intensive work from the day of their establishment. Those in Philadelphia, Cleveland and San Francisco illustrate this. In Philadelphia the emergency aid committee, an unofficial citizens' body composed of women, through the home relief division consistently proved how powerful a stimulus and director a citizens' committee may be. The points of greatest interest in the work of the Philadelphia committee were; first the *districting of the city* for relief work, an organization principle which would have greatly increased the effectiveness of unemployment committees elsewhere; and secondly, the direct co-operation with official authority in expending the two appropriations of $50,000 each which Philadelphia made as a direct appropriation for the relief of the unemployed.

In San Francisco the unemployment committee brought into existence by the Commonwealth Club raised a fund by public subscription to pay the unemployed men working in relays a wage of 20 cents an hour, and then constituted itself a clearing house employment bureau especially for all "clean up" work throughout the city. In Cleveland the mayor's unemployment commission, in connection with a vehement "give a job" campaign raised a fund which was used to pay wages to the unemployed placed on city work and in park and playground improvement. In Spokane, through the unemployment commission, work was secured for 1,000 men on city and county projects. In some cities and towns the commissions concentrated on attempts to find private work. The Seattle unemployment commission, for instance, furnished lists of responsible workmen, family men, to contractors and others. In short, efforts to create work came from very different angles in different cities. In Chicago, a working arrangement was made between the Associated Charities and the department of public works, in the interests of the unemployed. Salt Lake City, with a small appropriation to expend for wages for the unemployed dealt directly with an organization of the unemployed themselves which furnished the city with 25 men a day at $1.50 for eight hours, the city to furnish food. Kansas City, acting yet more directly, had what was practically a municipal sewing department for unemployed women. It is impossible to cover in detail the cities and towns that made appropriations with special reference to the unemployed, or that created some form of work for them, whether of a permanent or emergency nature. The following, however, seem fair conclusions to be drawn from the winter's history of city action in providing work: the appropriations were too small to provide for employment on a large scale or on large projects; they could therefore not draw off a very great percentage of the unemployed in their communities; they were subject to many delays and technical difficulties, and were in most cases not available until late in the winter; finally, the providing of public work was more adequately done in those places in which an active committee was urging it.

The various committees and commissions throughout the country took very different views of their function. Before they had been in existence very long all of them recognized that they were emergency bodies, with the immediate business of furnishing relief. Some of them began on a different theory; and some of them have been throughout concerned with a permanent preventive program. Chicago's committee, under the direction of Dr. Henderson, summed up its work in succinct recommendations to the legislature concerning reorganization of the state employment system and instituting a compulsory system of unemployment insurance. The Spokane committee has been made permanent. And it is proposed that the New York committee shall become so. It seems logical enough that any committee that has dealt with unemployment this winter on the basis of a social crisis needing charitable aid should have strong desires to forward such preventive measures as would make its activities unnecessary.

It is typical of the amateur way in which we deal with unemployment that we should rush into the establishment of employment bureaus. It became an epidemic at one time during the winter. Not only did fifty or more cities establish such bureaus, but the first thought of the individual and the charity was a new bureau. Even Wall Street fell into the error and created one for office workers, though practical relief was soon added. The business men and industry alone realized that bureaus make few jobs and quietly closed their employment departments and took down the "want ad" signs. The new bureaus were opened informally in mayor's or controller's or city clerk's offices; by women's clubs, notably in Chicago; by business bodies, as in Detroit, Nashville and Salt Lake City; by churches singly, or by inter-church unions, as in New York and in Lynn, Mass.; by the associated charities, in a considerable number of cities and towns; by Odd Fellows and other lodge associations, notably in Pennsylvania; by evening schools which this winter were thronged with unemployed men, as in Brooklyn;

and by a number of other clubs and agencies. Aside from the few new permanent and official bureaus, the most interesting employment exchanges established this winter were those established by councils of all the social agencies of a community or by special unemployment committees representing them. Such bureaus showed a clearing house policy hitherto almost unknown in employment work in America. It is in one sense strange that the very year in which there has been least work should be also the year in which most has been done to provide for spreading information about work and distributing labor. Probably the worth of a municipal employment bureau has been well illustrated, and such cities as Providence, Pittsburgh, and Baltimore, are likely to adopt measures for official municipal exchanges.

The epidemic of employment agencies has carried its lesson. We now know that we need a few such bureaus, centralized in power and co-ordinated in methods, maintained by the government for all, and by each individual industry for itself and that the middleman representing neither employer nor employe is a meddler. We are fast moving toward system, neutrality and efficiency in marketing labor. There has been a great deal of *debate* and *conference and interest* which has furnished few jobs compared to the demand, but which has undoubtedly laid the ground work for better planning of city work, the continuation of public works in needed seasons, assumption of relief and industrial measures for the unemployed by the government and a gathering together of labor and business forces about the city as the directing center of activity. More than anything else, business has begun to deal with unemployment as a problem in administration and efficiency.[3]

There should be no inference that the unemployment relief work of last winter was an organization matter. As a matter of fact it was successful in the degree in which it became a social impulse. The country had more socialization in aim and understanding with reference to unemployment than it ever had before. Therein lies the real progress of the winter's work. There is tremendous significance in the many general movements of the winter: in the "sacrifice day" in Pittsburgh and Philadelphia, where the desired $100,000 was very nearly attained; in the "donation day" in Buffalo, Niagara Falls and elsewhere; in the "newsboys day" in Chicago, in the interests of the "woman's club employment bureau"; in the "bundle days" in New York, Chicago, Boston and well nigh half a hundred other towns and cities. The importance of

[3] HIRES EXPERT TO END UNEMPLOYMENT. Philadelphia, Pa.—Through the appointment of Joseph H. Willits, of the Wharton School of Commerce and Finance, of the University of Pennsylvania, by the department of public works, the city is preparing to anticipate the state-wide move for public employment bureaus (expected to become a law at the present session of the legislature). This city is to see the establishment of a city employment bureau, which will act in co-operation with the municipal government.

these movements, in addition to their substantial material results, lay in bringing social agencies of all kinds and creeds into co-operative relation with each other and with business, city departments and citizens that have never before interested themselves in social welfare measures.

It is profitless to speak in detail of the hundreds of new bread lines and soup kitchens started this winter, of the emergency shelters devised. Relief organizations, hotel keepers, newspapers, churches, private citizens, labor unions, organizations of the unemployed themselves, conducted these in many places. There is only one thing to be said for them—they were necessary. There are few evidences that they have stimulated the further establishment of regular municipal lodging houses in cities and towns. Several California towns are agitating for municipal shelters other than city jails. But in this respect American cities still lag far behind European countries. There has been an effort in New York City this winter to make the municipal lodging house a real repair shop—not merely a one night shelter, but a place where an unemployed man may be really socially rehabitated. Effort is made to get men work, to return boys to their homes in other places, and to connect unemployables with relief organizations that can be of permanent assistance to them. This new principle makes a municipal lodging house a most valuable agent in dealing with unemployment. But only a few cities in the country have any municipal emergency shelter at all; most of them are a long way from thinking of such a shelter for other than vagrants.

No survey, however hasty, of last winter's unemployment work should omit the efforts here and there to get the unemployed upon the land. The efforts have been incidental and scattered, but they show a more sensible and practical dealing with the "back to the land" theory than we have heretofore had. There has been less insistence that the land is the answer to the problem of all the unemployed whether they will or not, and whether they would make good farmers or not. The approach has been made in local, practical ways—in a renewed interest in farm bureaus for the placing of workmen and tenants, in Chicago's plan to use portions of the sanitary district for farming by the unemployed under the supervision of the department of public welfare, the city to advance $1,000 for plows and seeds; in the vacant-lot-cultivation movement in New York, and in the plans of the child welfare league to provide vegetable gardening for the relief of unemployment. In short, although the movements toward getting the unemployed out upon the land as an answer to their problem have been sporadic and somewhat inconsequential, they have had definiteness and practicality; they have in the main been free from the ancient error that has characterized and defeated back to the land agitations during many years.

Notwithstanding the widespread conditions, practically no attempts have been made to provide any form of unemployment insurance other than that carried by the various trades unions for their members. The Chicago unemployment commission makes compulsory unemployment insurance one of its main recommendations to the legislature; and earlier in the winter the California commission of immigration and housing recommended the issuing of insurance to seasonal workers; but the subject of insurance has not really come within the legislative field this winter. This is probably due to the fact that during any industrial depression few legislative experiments can be made and insurance is generally recognized as a measure of prevention rather than as an expedient in a crisis.

The response of the American cities to their greatest problem this past winter is impressive and encouraging if one can lose sight temporarily of the enormous loss of resources in vitality, health, skill, happiness and hope. Unemployment has taken its place among the questions with which we shall deal with increasing sympathy and intelligence: it has been transferred from the province of charity to that of industrial organization. Where one citizen was enlisted as its foe; a hundred now stand ready. The preliminary educational work has been done, we have now but to organize the forces at work, seek the causes and institute remedies.

MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN THE UNITED STATES

BY MARGARET NASH[1]
Radcliffe College

THERE are in the United States at present three kinds of public employment bureaus, municipal, state, and a combination of both. They represent together one general movement, growing out of the same set of causes, having the same problems to face, possessed of the same faults, and differing only as to the governmental agencies under which they operate. Municipal bureaus can be best considered, therefore, not as isolated phenomena but as steps in a general endeavor to solve the problem of unemployment.

This movement began with the establishment of a state system in Ohio in 1890 and a municipal bureau at Seattle in 1893. The chief development has, however, taken place in the last fifteen years. There were, at the close of 1914, twenty municipal bureaus scattered through eight states, and nineteen state systems with fifty-seven offices. Of these last, five were organized under a combination of local and state governments.[2]

In addition to the offices now in existence, the states of Iowa and New York and the cities of Helena and San Francisco have had bureaus which have been given up. The reason for failure in the first two cases is to be found in the attempt to conduct the work by a correspondence system.[3] The San Francisco office was opened during a period of business depression in anticipation of state assistance. When this failed to come, the office had to be closed although it had been successful. The state of New York had a bureau in New York City from 1896 to 1906. For lack of adequate funds and efficient management this degenerated into an intelligence bureau for domestic servants, and was finally discontinued upon the advice of an investigating committee.[4] In 1914, however, municipal bureaus were opened in New York City and in Schenectady; a new state law, carefully drafted on lines suggested by experience in this country and in Europe, was passed;[5] and four state offices were established.

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[1] Miss Nash is a graduate of Smith College, and, since graduation, has spent some time abroad in the study of municipal affairs.

[2] State systems are to be found in Ohio, Nebraska, Missouri, Illinois, Wisconsin, Connecticut, Kansas, West Virginia, Maryland, Massachusetts, Colorado, Minnesota, Michigan, Rhode Island, Oklahoma, Arizona, Kentucky and New York.

The municipal bureaus are those of Berkeley, Los Angeles, Sacramento, California; Great Falls, Livingston, Missoula, Butte, Bozeman, Montana; New York City, Schenectady, New York; Portland, Oregon; Fort Worth, Texas; Trenton, Newark, New Jersey; Seattle, Tacoma, Spokane, Everett, Aberdeen, Hoquiam, Washington; Kansas City, Missouri; Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Cleveland, Ohio, has a city-state system and the four bureaus of Wisconsin are organized on what is practically a city-state plan though the county also is represented in the government and bears part of the expense.

[3] Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, *Bulletin*, June, 1907, p. 611.

The movement here, as in Europe, has been largely due to a desire to combat the evils of private employment agencies, to deal more effectively with the unemployment problem, and to save money to those for whom it is most needful that money should be saved.[6] The example of foreign countries has not been without influence, and in the corn belt the determining factor in the establishment of public bureaus has been the necessity of procuring a more satisfactory supply of harvest labor.[7]

There is little uniformity to be found in the administration of any of the public bureaus. The state systems are, many of them, organized under the state department of labor or bureau of labor statistics, but with regard to the municipal bureaus there seems to be no rule whatsoever; each city is a law unto itself. Thus in Seattle the office was originally under the management of the municipal labor department; later it was made part of the civil service department under the management of the secretary of the commission; the actual conduct of the men's department is now in the hands of the assistant labor commissioner.[8] The municipal bureau of New York City is an adjunct to the city department of licenses, and that of Kansas City is located at the city's welfare department. The bureau of Newark is in the office of the city clerk, who manages it in addition to his other duties.[9] In Cleveland, which has had since January, 1914, a city-state bureau, the superintendent is appointed by the state civil service commission, but must be approved by the mayor. He is both state superintendent and city commissioner. Expenses are divided between city and state. The Milwaukee bureau and the others in Wisconsin are also organized as city-state establishments; the most interesting feature of the Milwaukee administration is a managing committee of employers and employees in equal number, together with representatives of the city and state.[10]

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[4] *Ibid.*

[5] New York Labor Laws, 1914, in State of New York, Department of Labor *Bulletin*, pp. 53–56.

[6] United States Bureau of Labor, *Bulletin,* no. 68, p. 5.

[7] "Public Employment Offices," by W. M. Leiserson, in *Political Science Quarterly*, xxix (March, 1914), p. 29.

[8] *Twentieth Annual Report* of Public Employment Bureau, City of Seattle, Wash., 1913, p. 1.

[9] The bureau at Livingston, Montana, is managed by the chief of police, who finds that it is a great aid to him in ridding his town of vagrants. Those who will not work when a job is offered them are deported. The other municipal bureaus in Montana are carried on in much the same way.

Although some of the larger bureaus are properly housed, the quarters of the majority are inadequate and usually inaccessible. Many of the smaller ones are tucked away in the upper floors of city halls or other public buildings. A few do not even have separate waiting-rooms for men and women or separate departments for skilled and unskilled labor. The municipal bureau of New York City with its five departments for men alone is quite unique. The number of employees in an office affords some indication of the volume and efficiency of the work; thus the Boston office, which is generally considered the best in the country, has a force of fourteen; New York has twelve, Milwaukee five, Cleveland four. Seattle, however, with the greatest volume of business, has until recently managed with two. This has meant a neglect of the records and statistics. Seattle's success is due rather to the labor conditions of the Northwest than to its superior business methods. Sometimes the offices are maintained by a single individual in connection with other duties, as in Newark and in the cities of Montana. In most of the offices an attempt is made to keep records by a card-catalogue system. The usual questions asked on the registration cards are as to name, address, conjugal state and former employment. A record is kept of the number of applicants, positions offered, and positions filled. It is difficult, however, with the best of intentions to keep track of the number of positions filled, as neither employer nor employee is careful to send back the necessary information. In addition, some offices have failed to distinguish between applicants and applications. Even the superintendents will not vouch for the accuracy of their figures. No effort is made to distinguish on the records between temporary and permanent work. An attempt to do so would, of course, add greatly to the expense of the record-keeping, but it would enormously increase the value of the records for social study. As it is, they are at present practically worthless.

Superintendents often try to increase the number of their patrons by personal calls on employers and contractors, but where the office force is small, as is usually the case, it is not possible for them to find the time to carry out this policy effectively. Paid advertisement is seldom resorted to on account of expense. Consequently, it often happens that large employers of labor are entirely unaware of the existence of these bureaus. Where there has not been time to make a personal call on employers for the purpose of soliciting business, the telephone has been used with fair results, and there is unanimous testimony as to its value in following up engagements and in reaching the better class of applicants.

So far apparently the municipal bureaus have felt no great need for interurban co-operation and, although most of the state systems provide for some paper scheme of co-operation, Wisconsin is the only state where it is an integral part of the system. The Western association of public employment bureaus, composed of offices in the grain-belt states, is at present the only successful example of any endeavor to bring about interstate co-operation. Its purpose is limited, however, to the organization of the harvest-labor supply within its boundaries. The establishment of a federal system of agencies should mean a new era as regards this most important phase of the work of public employment offices. A nation-wide system of interrelated labor exchanges is now to be established and some sort of co-operation with all municipal and state bureaus will doubtless sooner or later be arranged under federal auspices.

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[10] Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, *Bulletin*, May 20, 1913, p. 205.

In connection with the proper organization and administration of public employment bureaus, it may well be asked whether state or local management is more satisfactory. The state system should afford better facilities for team-play and should promote uniformity in business methods. On the other hand, unemployment is in large part a local problem and is perhaps, therefore, best dealt with by a local authority. The work of the municipal bureau, if it is to be efficient, should be based on some plan of common action. Such a scheme should be devised in this country, as has been in Germany, where all the municipal officers are joined into state systems. The Wisconsin plan in this country comes nearest to this scheme of combining the merits of both state and local control. It is interesting to note that the majority of bureaus opened this winter (1914–1915) have been municipal. This may be due to a conviction on the part of the public as to their superiority over the state system, or it may result from the fact that in an exceptionally hard winter the cities have hurried into these experiments along the line of least resistance.

The reports of the various bureaus show amazing differences in cost of management. This seems to be due in part to careless methods of bookkeeping. The Seattle office gives the cost per position in 1913 as 8.2 cents and the total cost of running the bureau as $2,732.62.[11] It seems hardly possible that this figure represents the whole of the actual expense. Illinois pays out more than this in salaries alone for each of her eight offices. The figures given in the report of the Milwaukee office for 1913, the second year of its management by the industrial commission, can, however, be relied upon. The total expenses for 1913 are there given as $6,690.08, of which $4,129.29 was the amount paid by the state and $2,547.29 that expended by the city and county. The cost per position was 43 cents.[12] The cost of each position filled obviously depends not on the economy of management but on the volume of business done, and this accounts for Seattle's low figure, which, even if doubled or trebled to include all direct and indirect expenses, would still be the lowest of all.[13]

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[11] *Twentieth Annual Report* of the Public Employment Bureau of the City of Seattle, Wash., 1913, p. 11.

[12] *Second Annual Report* of the Citizens' Committee of Unemployment and the Milwaukee Free Employment Office, year ending October 31, 1913, p. 12.

Two questions of policy in the management of bureaus have given trouble. One is the problem of supplying labor during strikes. Trade unions in some states have insisted that the bureaus shall do no business at all with employers whose men are on strike, and this rule was incorporated in the law which first established public employment bureaus in Illinois. But this statute had to be amended in order to comply with the decision of the Illinois supreme court, which declared such discriminatory provisions to be unconstitutional. The procedure which has found most favor both in this country and abroad is to let the bureau receive offers of positions from employers during strikes but to require that they call the attention of all applicants to the strike and its causes before sending them to work. It is thus left with the men to apply or not as they think fit, with the result that as a rule they do not apply.

The other general question of policy is as to what the bureau should do in the matter of ascertaining the applicant's fitness and antecedents. In some bureaus a letter from the last employer is insisted upon as a reference. The applicant is also given the benefit of any ascertained facts about the employer that may prove of advantage to him in applying for a position. The Boston office, on the other hand, has adopted the German interpretation of an employment bureau's function, that is, merely to bring the prospective employer and employee together. It tries to send suitable candidates, but gives no recommendation and is obviously in no position to vouch for their fitness.

In 1911 a committee appointed by the legislature of Massachusetts to investigate public employment bureaus in that state found, after carefully following up the history of five hundred different positions reported as having been filled in the Boston office, that only 36 per cent had been actually filled, and that only 12 per cent of the persons sent to work were able to hold their jobs for three months.[14] This is an illustration not only of the unreliability of the records, but of the shiftless character of the applicants at a public bureau.[15] Even if the figures in the annual reports of various bureaus are taken as a true indication of the business done, it is probable that in no city does the work compare in volume with that of the private agencies as a whole. The business of a few of the most active of the public offices compares, however, not unfavorably with that done by similar private concerns. Seattle reports in 1913 31,150 positions filled, Milwaukee 15,660, the state office in Boston

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[13] The Seattle office reports 31,150 positions filled in 1913 and Boston 20,971.

[14] Massachusetts Commission to Investigate Employment Offices, *Report*, May, 1911, pp. 74–76.

[15] The Boston office takes exception to this statement, which it thinks unfair.

20,971. Cleveland, under its new management, fills on an average 2,400 positions per week; if it continues this average through the year, it will have a total almost as high as that of Seattle. Livingston, Montana, may be taken as an example of the work done by a smaller bureau; in 1913 it filled 1,070 positions, and in 1914 the number was 936.

It is everywhere admitted that the workers who patronize most of the public employment bureaus are below the average. The records show that rarely more than 20 per cent are skilled workers, and some bureaus handle no skilled labor at all. A considerable proportion of the applicants are "casuals"—too poor to pay the fee required by a private agency and not capable of holding a regular position or perhaps not desiring one. The municipal office in Portland, Oregon, deals almost wholly with applicants for temporary jobs. The fact that the bureaus are free accounts for the large number of inferior applicants; yet it is certain that an employment bureau is not the proper institution to deal with the great problem of the unemployable. We take it for granted that the handicapped, such as the crippled, infirm, or even the newly-arrived immigrant, ought to have separate provision. Is not the same thing true of the confessedly shiftless and indolent?

Since the public bureaus have in only a few cases so developed as to become serious rivals of the private agencies, they naturally have not been able to combat the abuses of the latter. Neither have they done anything appreciable, taking the country as a whole, toward solving the problem of unemployment. Their statistics have not been worth the trouble of studying, and their real achievements in the way of getting permanent jobs have been pitifully meager in comparison with those of private agencies. Only in the western grain states have the bureaus even approximately fulfilled the hopes of their promoters. Elsewhere the majority have been failures, more or less complete. The facts give a basis for no other possible conclusion.

The chief cause of failure to achieve real results in this as in so many other fields of city business has been the blighting influence of local politics. Superintendents have not been chosen for their fitness; most of them have had no preliminary training and no particular interest in their work. In more than one city the bureau seems to have been established with an eye to creating a well-paid job for a needy politician. It is no wonder that disregard of system and lack of enterprise have been the result. The offices doing the best work are those which have come under civil service regulations. In the second place, the funds granted for supporting the bureaus have been almost always inadequate. The offices themselves are dingy and cramped, the clerks too few or incompetent, and no systematic publicity possible. The laws or ordinances establishing and regulating the bureaus have been on the whole inelastic, discouraging initiative on the part of those in charge. These criticisms apply to public employment bureaus in general, of whatever type. Municipal offices have shown themselves no more free from shortcomings than state bureaus; some of them indeed have been the worst offenders.

Fortunately, there are some exceptions to the general rule. The state bureau at Boston has long been looked upon as a model and has latterly not been without influence upon other bureaus. Its system of registration and record-keeping, in particular, has been widely copied; but its steadily increasing business is the best test of its efficiency. The gratifying results in Milwaukee, where since 1911 the bureau has been under the intelligent direction of an industrial commission, simply shows what may be expected when the prevailing faults have been remedied. Acting under a broad grant of powers the commission has brought about a co-operation of city and state authorities, thereby procuring adequate funds. It has enlisted the interest of employers and employees by giving them equal representation on an active advisory board, and has devised a careful scheme for securing positions and promotions.[16] It is perhaps too soon to speak of the work of the New York municipal bureau, which has been in existence only since May, 1914. New York City has long debated the matter of public employment bureaus, and the fact that it has at last decided to establish a municipal bureau is significant. The lessons taught by the failure of the first state bureau have not been forgotten. A generous appropriation has made possible the equipment of an office which has no superior in the country. The city has secured a manager who has already established his reputation as the superintendent of a bureau in another state. Boston, Milwaukee, New York, and Cleveland, however, stand almost alone to-day among municipal bureaus in the attempt to apply modern efficiency tests to the management of public employment bureaus.

Many controversies have been waged in the past as to the need and advisability of public employment bureaus, but the public mind to-day seems to have accepted them as a legitimate governmental activity. The question which must be decided now is as to the best plan of organization and the most efficient methods of procedure. The Massachusetts industrial commission, reporting in 1911, came to the conclusion that private bureaus were meeting the whole problem well enough, and that the record of public bureaus in the United States was not sufficiently encouraging to warrant the assumption that they could ever occupy the field. But public opinion to-day does not agree with the doctrine that private bureaus do well enough. It has been established beyond dispute that the majority of private agencies in this country and in Europe are given in some degree to serious abuses. Abuses are, indeed, almost inevitable in any system of securing employment run wholly for profit. But apart from this the private agencies do not and cannot co-operate on any broad scale without defeating their own ends. If the labor market is ever to be properly organized and unemployment reduced to the lowest possible margin, the result cannot be achieved by isolated and spasmodic effort. Some plan of interstate or interurban co-operation is necessary to bring about any such result. Such co-operation is only possible in a public system.

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[16] *Bulletin* of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, May 20, 1913.

ARE WOMEN A FORCE FOR GOOD GOVERNMENT?

AN ANALYSIS OF THE RETURNS IN THE RECENT MUNICIPAL ELECTION IN CHICAGO[1]

BY EDITH ABBOTT[2]
Chicago

WHAT effect did the women's vote actually have on the recent municipal election in Chicago? Were any candidates nominated or elected who would not have been nominated and elected without the women's votes? If the women did not actually change the result of the election, did they vote more largely than men for the best candidates?

In attempting to answer these questions, which have been so frequently asked in so many parts of the country since the election, it is not necessary to indulge in speculation. The women of Illinois have only limited suffrage, and special "women's ballots" are provided for their use and these ballots are counted separately from the men's. How the women voted is, therefore, all a matter of official record, and it is only necessary to study the returns in order to determine the facts.

A study of the influence of the women's vote upon the mayoralty election must necessarily begin with the choice of candidates at the primary election, for the choice of good or bad candidates is, of course, the fact of first importance. The two leading candidates for the Republican nomination were William Hale Thompson, since elected and inaugurated mayor, and Chief Justice Harry Olson, of the Chicago municipal court,—the fusion candidate agreed upon by the Progressives, led by Professor Charles E. Merriam, who has been for many years the leader of the good-government forces in Chicago, and by the better element in the Republican party. As to which was the better candidate there could be no possible question. The significance, therefore, of the figures given in the following tables cannot be overestimated.

This table shows that the women gave a decisive plurality of more than 7,700 votes to the better candidate while the men gave a still larger pulrality to the less desirable candidate. Fifty-five per cent of the women voted for Judge Olson, but the men's plurality for Mr. Thompson was large enough to out-weigh the women's vote. If the men had stayed away from the polls on the day of the primary and left to the women the business of choosing a candidate, the fate of Chicago would have been different.

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[1] See article entitled "Do Women Vote," by Ellis Meredith, NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 663.

[2] Associate Director of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF VOTES CAST BY MEN AND WOMEN FOR CANDIDATES IN THE REPUBLICAN PRIMARY

	Number		Per Cent	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Thompson	61,506	25,827	53.0	42.7
Olson	51,255	33,570	44.2	55.6
Hey	3,264	1,019	2.8	1.7
Total	116,025	60,416	100.0	100.0

Women's plurality for Olson 7,743
Men's plurality for Thompson 10,251

In the contest between Mayor Harrison and Mr. Sweitzer for the Democratic nomination, there was no such distinct line of cleavage between the good and the bad elements. Both were "machine" candidates, although the mayor's machine was considered less undesirable than Mr. Sweitzer's. It is not therefore especially significant that both the men and the women of the Democratic party, as the following table shows, gave Mr. Sweitzer a large plurality; but if it is true that Mayor Harrison was a less undesirable candidate, then the fact that a larger per cent of the women than of the men voted for Harrison is, of course, significant. In so far as there was a choice the preponderance of the women's vote went to the right side.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF VOTES CAST BY MEN AND WOMEN FOR CANDIDATES IN THE DEMOCRATIC PRIMARY

	Number		Per Cent	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Sweitzer	125,587	57,662	64.5	61.2
Harrison	67,860	36,203	34.9	38.4
Wilson	1,112	341	.6	.4
Total	194,559	94,206	100.0	100.0

Women's plurality for Sweitzer 21,459
Men's plurality for Sweitzer 57,727

The contrast between the situation on the day of the primary and the day of election was very striking. When the primary was held, there was a chance to nominate a reform candidate for mayor, and the women made the choice in favor of Judge Olson and good government. The men chose differently, and on election day the choice was between an undesirable Democrat and an equally undesirable—or slightly less undesirable—Republican. Men and women alike had to do the best they could with the hopeless situation created by the men voters. If the men had stayed at home on the day of the primaries, it will be remembered, the men and women would have had a choice between Judge Olson and Mr. Sweitzer. Since there was no "good" candidate to vote for, the best that could be done either by the men or the women was to vote for the *least undesirable* candidate. The following table shows the result, already sufficiently familiar, of that election.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF VOTES CAST BY MEN AND WOMEN FOR CANDIDATES IN THE MAYORALTY ELECTION

	Number		Per Cent	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Sweitzer	161,179	89,882	37.5	36.2
Thompson	249,713	148,825	58.2	59.8
Stedman	16,420	8,032	3.8	3.2
Hill	2,007	1,967	.5	.8
Total	429,319	248,706	100.0	100.0

These election returns have been quoted in all parts of the country as evidence of the fact that the women were merely as one writer has put it "convenient copy-cats of male opinion" because they helped the men to elect Mr. Thompson instead of electing a more undesirable candidate, Mr. Sweitzer. The women are accused of not voting independently. Would independence have been a virtue if it had elected Mr. Sweitzer? If by "independence" is meant not voting with the men, then the women voted independently in the primary when independence was a virtue, but on election day they did the best they could for Chicago by voting with the great majority of the men for Mr. Thompson.

The question of the effect of the women's vote upon the election of aldermen is a matter of very great importance; but as each of the 35 wards in Chicago elects its own alderman, the analysis of the votes of these 35 separate local communities is a rather complicated undertaking. It is possible, however, to determine (1) whether in any wards the women's vote actually changed the election in favor of a better or a worse candidate; and (2) in how many wards a larger or smaller percentage of women than of men voted for the candidates recommended by the non-partisan Municipal Voters' League.[3] It should be explained that there is almost universal agreement in Chicago that the "good" candidates are those recommended by the league. In a few wards there may be two candidates of almost equal ability and integrity, and in such cases of course there can be no clear line drawn between "good" and "bad" candidates. Such cases, however, are so rare that they may be disregarded, and the league recommendations may be taken as determining which are the best candidates.

It has not seemed worth while to undertake a detailed analysis of the aldermanic primary vote since the league published only a partial report on the candidates, and in the absence of any accepted statement as to who the best candidates were, it is, of course, impossible to determine how far the women's vote was influential in nominating the "best" men.

It is significant, however, that the day after the primary, the president of the league in a statement published in the newspapers declared that the result of the aldermanic primary had been a cause of congratulation and that "the women played an important part in many of the ward contests and the returns would indicate that they are entitled to credit for the nomination of Buck in the 33d ward." The statement also noted specifically that the nomination of "men like McCormick of the 6th and Buck of the 33d are a welcome addition"[4] to the aldermanic lists. Before leaving the subject of the primary, it should be noted that the *Chicago Tribune* under the headline "Women's Work Tells" made the following statement regarding the victory of Alexander A. McCormick in the Sixth Ward: "The women's vote played a big part in the McCormick victory. Scores of residence meetings have been held in his behalf and dozens of women workers were present at the polls all day long after having put in two or three weeks of consistent work in house to house canvasses." (*Chicago Tribune*, Wednesday, February 24, p. 5.)

The official returns of the republican primary vote in the 6th ward show that although the men as well as the women gave Mr. McCormick a plurality, 61 per cent of the women and only 46 per cent of the men voted for him. Moreover, the women were largely responsible for the fact that Mr. McCormick filed his petition for nomination. The Republican machine had agreed on a very respectable, but inexperienced young lawyer for the place, and there was a good deal of ill-feeling during the campaign, in which the friends of Mr. McCormick were repeatedly charged with "bad faith" since it was said that the "place had been promised" to the other candidate. The women voters took a remarkably independent view of the matter. No man, they said, and no group of men had any right to "promise" the aldermanic nomination to any man. The people of the ward were entitled to the services of the best man available and the fact that "months ago" some man or some group of men had "promised the place" was not entitled to have any weight. The result was, as the president of the league said, that the women were largely responsible for Mr. McCormick's nomination. The vote was as follows:

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[3] I am indebted to a class in statistics at the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, and in particular to two members of the class, Miss M. Cushing and Miss H. F. Ryan, for the tedious work of computing these percentages.

[4] *Chicago Tribune*, Wednesday, February 24, p. 2, statement by Frederick Bruce Johnstone, president, Municipal Voters' League.

REPUBLICAN VOTE IN THE PRIMARY, SIXTH WARD

	Men	Women
Friend	2,808	1,394
Keck	523	243
Kerr	105	31
Singley	28	8
McCormick	2,962	2,646

Per cent of women voting for McCormick 61.2
Per cent of men voting for McCormick 46.0

It may be noted, too, that while the men's votes alone would have nominated McCormick by a small plurality (154 votes) yet the women's work in the ward was largely responsible for winning this plurality.

In the 33d ward, the president of the league was right in his statement that the women were probably entitled to the credit for the nomination of Buck. The official returns of the contest there between Buck and Hazen are as follows:

REPUBLICAN VOTE IN THE PRIMARY, THIRTY-THIRD WARD

	Men	Women	Total
Hazen	3,468	1,420	4,888
Buck	3,113	1,846	4,959

Men's plurality for Hazen 355
Women's plurality for Buck 426

Proceeding to an analysis of the results of the aldermanic election, it appears from the official returns that the women's vote actually changed the result in two wards. In the 18th ward, one of the densely populated West Side wards, concerning which we had many prophecies of the dangers of the so-called ignorant vote, the women's vote elected Carl

J. Murray, whereas the men's vote would have elected the notorious "Barney" Grogan. The following extract from the report of the Municipal Voters' League on this candidate indicates the value of the work of the women voters in bringing about his defeat.

> Bernard J. ("Barney") Grogan—Democrat: . . . has been saloonkeeper for thirteen years; recent police report stated his saloon was a "hangout for safeblowers, pickpockets, gunmen, prostitutes and gamblers"; he figures regularly as a bondsman at Desplaines street station; a friend of "Mike the Pike"; in civil service investigation of police higher-ups in 1911 (resulting in discharge of Inspector Dorman and others) a divekeeper testified that he went with Grogan to the back room of the latter's saloon and there paid Grogan $400 for police protection. Grogan is a disgrace to the city and the 18th ward.

The only other ward in which the women's votes actually changed the result of the election was the 22d, and here again, although there was no such disgraceful candidate as "Barney" Grogan to be defeated, the women elected the Democratic candidate recommended by the Municipal Voters' League, instead of the Republican candidate, who did not receive the endorsement of the league but who would have been elected if the men had been voting alone.

In two wards, and two wards only, then, was the election actually changed by the women and in both of these wards the women's vote resulted in the election of candidates whose election had been asked for by the non-partisan league, and in one case, a particularly disgraceful man was kept out of the council solely because of the women's vote. Two facts should be taken into consideration with regard to the number of wards in which the women's vote turned the election: (1) that the men voters are more numerous than the women, and it takes therefore a large percentage of the women's votes to change the result; and (2) that the independence of the women's vote in the aldermanic election of 1914 had demonstrated to politicians of all parties the importance of nominating better candidates, and as a result there were fewer "gray wolves" to be defeated this year.

Another, and perhaps more important, test of the independence and intelligence of the women's vote is whether or not a larger percentage of the women than of the men voted for the candidates recommended by the Municipal Voters' League.

The following summary shows (1) the number of wards in which the league candidates received a larger percentage of the women's vote than of the men's vote, (2) the number of wards in which the league candidates received a larger percentage of the men's vote, and (3) the wards in which the percentages were the same or divided.

The percentages and the official returns on which they were computed are all published at the close of this article.

1. In 24 out of the 35 wards, the percentage of women voting for the league candidates was higher than the percentage of men voting for these candidates. These were the 1st, 2d, 3d (two candidates elected), 4th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 12th, 14th, 16th, 18th, 21st, 22d, 23d, 24th, 26th, 28th, 29th, 31st, 32d, 33d, and 35th.

2. In eight wards the percentage of men voting for the league candidates was higher than the per cent of women voting for these candidates. These were the 5th, 11th, 13th, 17th, 19th, 20th, 27th, and 34th.

3. In two wards the percentages of men and women voting for the league candidates were the same. These were the 25th (two candidates elected) and the 30th.

In one ward (the 15th) where two candidates were to be elected, the percentage of women voting for the Municipal Voters' League candidate for the longer term was larger than the per cent of men, but the per cent of men voting for the short term league candidate was higher than the per cent of women. In this latter case the recommended candidate elected by the men was a Socialist, and the women seem in general to have been more reluctant than the men to vote for Socialist candidates.

In addition to the election of a mayor and thirty-eight aldermen, twelve "public policy" questions came before the voters of Chicago. Seven of these involved bond issues and received a plurality of the men's and of the women's votes. On the first three questions, which involved the issue of bonds for (1) a contagious diseases hospital, (2) a dormitory for the John Worthy school for delinquent boys, and (3) a house of shelter for women, the per cent of women voting "yes" was slightly larger than the per cent of men—in no case however was there a difference as great as 5 per cent. The per cent of women and men voting for the fourth proposition—bonds for garbage reduction works—was the same. On the last three propositions, (5) bathing-beaches, (6) fire and (7) police department bonds, the per cent of men voting "yes" was slightly higher than the per cent of women (the excess in the case of bathing-beaches was only 1 per cent). Of the other public policy questions, four related to the annexation of outlying villages, and in all these cases a slightly larger percentage of men than of women voted "yes"; the other question submitted, that of the "double platoon" system in the fire department, was defeated both by the men and by the women, but with a larger per cent of the women than of the men voting "no." On the whole there was general satisfaction with the outcome of the public policy vote, and the women were in line with approved, and as it appears, general public sentiment in voting for the measures, the only fact of significance being that a slightly higher percentage of women voted "yes" on city bonds for humanitarian purposes.

In conclusion, then, it seems fair to say that the recent municipal election has shown that the women's vote has been a source of strength to the good government forces. At the risk of repetition, however, it may once more be emphasized that the most signal evidence of the fact that the women voters are a force for good government was afforded by the Republican primary vote in which a majority of the women, and unfortunately for Chicago, a minority of the men, voted for Chief Justice Olson, the candidate of the "reform" forces. On the day of the election it was too late either for the women or the men to save a situation in which the two great parties offered two undesirable candidates to the voters. The women as well as the men took the wise course of voting for the least undesirable of these candidates, but it should not be forgotten that the women's vote alone would have meant a choice between Chief Justice Olson and Mr. Sweitzer for mayor. It was the men's vote that created a situation in which the voters had to choose between Mr. Sweitzer and Mr. Thompson.

So far as the aldermanic election is concerned, the returns show that two aldermanic candidates, one of them of the worst "gray wolf" type, were defeated by the women's vote and that in twenty-five different wards, in all sections of the city and among all classes of people, rich and poor, immigrant and American, from the university wards on the south side to some of the most congested wards on the west side, a larger proportion of the women than of the men voted without regard to party affiliations for the candidates recommended by the Municipal Voters' League. The officers of the league said, in publishing their final report on candidates, "To the women voters of Chicago a special appeal is made. They should not forget that last year, but for their vote, six good aldermen would have been defeated." The election returns show that this appeal was not in vain. To the "six good aldermen" whom the women saved from defeat last year four others have been added, two at the primary and two at the election this year. These ten aldermen are the women's direct contribution to the City Council of Chicago.

OFFICIAL RETURNS ALDERMANIC ELECTION, CHICAGO, APRIL 6, 1915, WITH THE PERCENTAGES OF MEN AND WOMEN IN EACH WARD VOTING FOR THE CANDIDATES RECOMMENDED BY THE MUNICIPAL VOTERS LEAGUE.

Wards		Men	Women	Total
I.	Mitchel, p.	51	22	73
	Kenna, d.	6,761	1,833	8,594
	Troupe, r.	2,814	1,096	3,910
	Phillips, s. (*M. V. L.*)	413	161	574
	Total	10,039	3,112	13,151
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 4 per cent; women 5 per cent.			
II.	*Gary, p.* (*M. V. L.*)	2,254	1,443	3,697
	Russell, d.	4,180	2,313	6,893
	DePriest, r.	6,700	3,899	10,599
	Bloch, s.	296	137	433
	Total	13,430	7,792	21,622
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 17 per cent; women 19 per cent.			
III.	Nash, d.	5,709	3,766	9,475
Full term.	*Werner, r.* (*M. V. L.*)	7,526	5,318	12,844
	Howe, s.	247	147	394
	Total	13,482	9,231	22,713
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 56 per cent; women 58 per cent.			

Wards		Men	Women	Total
III.	Keim, d.	4,447	2,916	7,363
Short term.	*Stern, r. (M. V. L.)*	8,352	5,841	14,193
	Shelton, s.	296	162	458
	Total	13,095	8,919	22,014
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 64 per cent; women 66 per cent.			
IV.	*Hickey, d. (M. V. L.)*	4,901	2,695	7,596
	Lambine	2,810	1,301	4,111
	Bour, s.	167	51	218
	Total	7,878	4,047	11,925
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 62 per cent; women 67 per cent.			
V.	Martin, d.	5,274	2,880	8,154
	Kramp, r. (M. V. L.)	4,098	2,053	6,151
	Wellman, s.	204	64	268
	Lantry, p.	10	6	25
	Total	9,595	5,003	14,598
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 43 per cent; women 41 per cent.			
VI.	Hanly, d.	3,782	2,230	6,012
	McCormick, r. (M. V. L.)	10,885	7,618	18,503
	Defaut, s.	286	191	477
	Total	14,953	10,039	24,992
	Voting for M. V. L candidate: men 73 per cent; women 76 per cent.			
VII.	Lindsay, d.	5,751	3,648	9,399
	Merriam, r. (M. V. L.)	10,351	7,787	18,138
	Hoeldtke, s.	327	200	527
	Total	16,429	11,635	28,064
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 63 per cent; women 67 per cent.			
VIII.	Emerson, d.	4,052	2,145	6,197
	Tyden, r. (M. V. L.)	5,745	3,831	9,576
	Housinger, s.	397	159	556
	Lekbert, p.		1	1
	Total	10,194	6,136	16,330
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 56 per cent; women 62 per cent.			
IX.	Cook, d.	3,202	1,743	4,945
	Vanderbilt, r. (M. V. L.)	6,524	4,308	10,832
	Johnson, s.	910	357	1,267
	Total	10,636	6,408	17,044
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 61 per cent; women 67 per cent.			
X.	Smidl, p.	103	90	193
	Klaus, d. (M. V. L.)	3,314	1,615	4,939
	Panama, r.	2,133	883	3,016
	Pntl, s.	427	170	597
	Total	5,977	2,758	8,735
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 54 per cent; women 59 per cent.			
XI.	Cullerton, d.	4,340	2,262	6,602
	Lohman, r. (M. V. L.)	2,478	1,215	3,693
	Matteoni, s.	272	76	348
	Total	7,090	3,553	10,643
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 35 per cent; women 34 per cent.			
XII.	Kerner, d.	5,504	3,045	8,549
	Fink' r. (M. V. L.)	3,438	1,755	5,193
	Beranek, s.	554	244	798
	Total	9,496	5,044	14,540
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 58 per cent; women 60 per cent.			
XIII.	Ahern, d.	7,123	5,271	12,394
	Anderson, r. (M. V. L.)	7,801	5,142	12,943
	Will, s.	409	151	560
	Total	15,333	10,564	25,897
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 51 per cent; women 49 per cent.			
XIV.	Kells, d.	4,471	2,492	6,963
	Lawley, r. (M. V. L.)	6,640	3,934	10,574
	Harris, s.	374	180	554
	———, prog.	3		3
	———, prohi.	3		3
	Total	11,491	6,606	18,097
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 58 per cent; women 60 per cent.			

Wards		Men	Women	Total
XV.	Backer, prog.	49	13	62
Full.	*Klane, d.* (*M. V. L.*)	4,449	2,128	6,577
	Utpatel, r.	5,217	2,534	7,751
	Sissman, s.	2,448	957	3,405
	Total	12,163	5,632	17,795
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 37 per cent; women 38 per cent.			
Short.	Kaindl, d.	3,891	1,800	5,691
	Anderson, r.	4,085	2,062	6,147
	Rodriguez, s. (*M. V. L.*)	4,400	1,865	6,265
	Total	12,376	5,727	18,103
	Voting for M.V.L. candidate: men 36 per cent; women 33 per cent.			
XVI.	*Turiefka, d.* (*M. V. L.*)	4,738	2,223	6,961
	Schulenberg, r.	1,875	760	2,635
	Peltz, s.	178	80	258
	Total	6,791	3,063	9,854
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 70 per cent; women 73 per cent.			
XVII.	Kielczynski, d.	2,313	1,026	3,339
	Sitts, r. (*M. V. L.*)	2,621	952	3,573
	Blaska, s.	118	51	169
	Total	5,052	2,029	7,081
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 52 per cent; women 47 per cent.			
XVIII.	Brennan, prog.	62	9	71
	Grogan, d.	6,548	2,572	9,120
	Murray, r. (*M. V. L.*)	6,388	3,044	9,432
	Smith, s.	565	187	752
	Total	13,563	5,812	19,375
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 47 per cent; women 52 per cent.			
XIX.	Powers, d.	3,666	1,664	5,330
	Levison, r. (*M. V. L.*)	1,948	774	2,722
	Schneid, s.	224	84	308
	Total	5,838	2,522	8,360
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 33 per cent; women 31 per cent.			
XX.	Fehr, prog.	22	2	24
	Franz, d.	2,164	1,051	3,215
	Miller, r. (*M. V. L.*)	2,253	1,029	3,282
	Total	4,439	2,082	6,521
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 51 per cent; women 49 per cent.			
XXI.	*Geiger, d.* (*M. V. L.*)	6,655	3,142	9,797
	Funke, r.	4,775	2,039	6,814
	Nitschke, s.	428	123	551
	Total	11,858	5,304	17,162
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 56 per cent; women 59 per cent.			
XXII.	*Ellison, d.* (*M. V. L.*)	3,068	1,507	4,575
	Dochtermann, r.	3,243	1,169	4,412
	Lafin, s.	928	256	1,184
	Hestenes, prohi.	19	26	45
	Total	7,258	2,958	10,216
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 42 per cent; women 51 per cent.			
XXIII.	Klein, prog.	94	27	121
	Harrington, d.	4,241	2,159	6,400
	Wallace, r. (*M. V. L.*)	8,605	5,706	14,311
	Ericson, s.	445	271	816
	Total	13,385	8,163	21,648
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 64 per cent; women 70 per cent.			
XXIV.	Becker, d.	4,237	2,026	6,263
	Gnadt, r. (*M. V. L.*)	5,528	2,809	8,337
	Grant, s.	605	187	792
	Peterson, ind.	1	1	2
	Krumholz, ind.	1		1
	Total	10,372	5,023	15,395
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 53 per cent; women 56 per cent.			

Wards		Men	Women	Total
XXV.	Kuhn, d.	4,152	2,897	7,049
Full.	*Capitain, r.* (*M. V. L.*)	13,978	9,828	23,806
	Meisinger, s.	464	324	788
	Total	18,594	13,049	31,643
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 75 per cent; women 75 per cent.			
Short.	Walker, p.	543	389	932
	Quinn, d.	4,173	2,912	7,085
	Link, r. (*M. V. L.*)	13,324	9,214	22,538
	Pause, s.	416	284	700
	Total	18,456	12,799	31,255
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 72 per cent; women 72 per cent.			
XXVI.	Oberg, d.	5,483	2,668	8,151
	Lipps, r. (*M. V. L.*)	10,060	6,403	16,463
	Racine, s.	627	279	906
	Hunsche, p.	86	77	163
	Total	16,256	9,427	25,683
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 62 per cent; women 68 per cent.			
XXVII.	McGrane, d.	3,776	1,811	5,587
	Rioch, r.	5,180	3,290	8,470
	Kennedy, s. (*M. V. L.*)	8,798	4,055	12,853
	Total	17,754	9,156	26,910
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 50 per cent; women 44 per cent.			
XXVIII.	Sharvy, d.	3,700	1,856	5,556
	Littler, r. (*M. V. L.*)	7,177	4,093	11,270
	Hackenberger, s.	744	281	1,025
	Total	11,621	6,230	17,851
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 62 per cent; women 66 per cent.			
XXIX.	Kilens, d.	4,996	2,450	7,446
	Hrubec, r. (*M. V. L.*)	6,125	3,226	9,351
	Taft, s.	696	305	1,001
	Total	11,817	5,981	17,798
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 52 per cent; women 54 per cent.			
XXX.	Lynch, d.	5,366	2,937	8,303
	Buse, r. (*M. V. L.*)	3,852	2,103	5,955
	Callahan, s.	206	63	269
	Total	9,424	5,103	14,527
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 41 per cent; women 41 per cent.			
XXXI.	Carr, d.	4,644	3,148	7,792
	Kearns, r. (*M. V. L.*)	8,628	5,880	14,508
	Henning, s.	555	248	803
	Total	13,827	9,276	23,103
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 62 per cent; women 63 per cent.			
XXXII.	Wasson, d.	5,335	3,298	8,633
	Fisher, r. (*M. V. L.*)	13,424	9,604	23,028
	Ball, s.	483	268	751
	Total	19,242	13,170	32,412
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 70 per cent; women 73 per cent.			
XXXIII.	Harnley, prog.	29	19	48
	Stevenson, d.	3,843	1,998	5,841
	Buck, r. (*M. V. L.*)	6,714	4,349	11,063
	Johnson, s.	1,036	360	1,396
	Hazen, ind.	6,123	3,450	9,573
	Total	17,745	10,176	27,921
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 38 per cent; women 43 per cent.			
XXXIV.	Held, d.	6,389	3,480	9,869
	Blaha, r. (*M. V. L.*)	7,932	4,123	12,055
	Skala, s.	876	366	1,242
	Johnson, prob.	87	53	140
	Total	15,284	8,022	23,306
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 52 per cent; women 51 per cent.			
XXXV.	*Clark, d.* (*M. V. L.*)	8,073	5,235	13,308
	Janke, r.	8,191	5,198	13,389
	Huggins, s.	897	369	1,266
	Total	17,161	10,802	27,963
	Voting for M. V. L. candidate: men 47 per cent; women 49 per cent.			

SHORT ARTICLES

CHICAGO'S SENSATIONAL TAX CASES

BY VICTOR S. YARROS[1]
Chicago

THE indictment of Julius Rosenwald last winter by a Cook County grand jury on the charge of willful violation of the revenue or taxation laws of Illinois was like the "shot heard round the world." The more the indictment was locally explained and defended by the state's attorney, Mr. Hoyne, who had procured it, and by the assistants in his office, the less the general public understood it, for the explanations were mutually inconsistent and contradictory. The Chicago press, without exception, deplored and denounced the indictment, and this embittered the state's attorney and caused him to accuse the press of anarchical opinions and methods.

Soon after Cook County returned the "tax-dodging indictment" against one of Chicago's best citizens—against a philanthropist and civic reformer of national fame—another remarkable Chicago "tax case" challenged general attention. Charles R. Crane, another of Chicago's distinguished, wealthy and public-spirited citizens, another captain of industry and man of broad sympathies and varied interests of the most elevated kind, announced his removal from that city and from the state of Illinois. He gave the state's taxation and revenue system as the sole cause of his action. It was explained on his behalf that he did not wish to evade even the literal and technical requirements of the revenue law, but that, on the other hand, he did not care to expose himself to confiscatory taxation. Hence his determination to select a domicile in a state that was governed by sounder and fairer revenue laws. Through some mistake Massachusetts was named as the state Mr. Crane had decided to make his permanent home; as a matter of fact, Illinois and Massachusetts are in identically the same backward and discreditable category with reference to taxation, and Mr. Crane would not better his position were he to settle in Massachusetts now. Tax reform legislation has been under discussion in that commonwealth, and is sadly needed, but no action had yet been taken that held out the promise of early relief when Mr. Crane's decision was announced. Since then the Massachusetts legislature has voted to submit to the people an amendment to the revenue article of the state constitution.

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[1] Of Hull House, Chicago.

What is the situation in Illinois as regards revenue and taxation—the situation that gives us Chicagoans in one season the indictment of one highly desirable and useful citizen and the virtual expulsion of another?

The answer need not be long or elaborate. Illinois still clings to the so-called "general property tax." Her constitution, adopted in 1870, and not materially amended since except for the benefit of Chicago's local courts and a certain degree of home rule—the antiquated constitution imposes this general and proportional system of taxation. All forms of property, real and personal, tangible and intangible, must be taxed at the same rate, and on the same basis. As an inevitable result, here as elsewhere, personal property of the intangible kind largely escapes taxation. The men who knowingly and voluntarily choose to schedule their intangible personalty—their stocks, bonds, debentures, mortgages, bank deposits, etc.—pay the tax contemplated by the organic law. It hardly needs saying that the name of these is *not* legion. Few will pay voluntarily a confiscatory tax, and under the general property tax the owner of a safe and conservative bond, yielding him $40 a year, or 4 per cent, pays about half of that amount to the tax collector. In other words, so far as such securities are concerned, Illinois levies on them an income tax of 50 and even 60 per cent! The savings bank depositor who gets 3 per cent interest—this being the prevailing Chicago rate—pays, when "caught," an income tax on his savings of over 70 per cent!

To repeat, then, very few citizens in the state return, or ever did return, correct and complete tax schedules. But widows and orphans, trust estates, and the like, pay the full confiscatory tax because they cannot possibly evade their legal obligation. This, it is pointed out, works intolerable injustice to those who can least support the burden of so heavy and ruthless a tax system.

It is estimated that hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of intangible personalty escape taxation altogether, and that realty and tangible personalty suffer seriously in consequence of this futile attempt to enforce the unenforceable and to achieve the impossible in taxation.

The Crane episode, in view of what has been said, requires no elucidation beyond the statement that as long as Mr. Crane's intangible personalty consisted chiefly of certificates of stock in the Crane Company, that personalty was exempt from taxation under the Illinois revenue system. The law exempts stock in domestic corporations of a manufacturing and mercantile character; it does this, first because the state wishes to promote industry and trade, as well as incorporation under her rather than other or "foreign" laws, and, secondly, because it is plain to the most benighted lawmaker that to tax stock after taxing the corporation is to levy double taxation. The stockholder is of course a partner in the concern; he gets no dividends if there are no profits. Now, Mr. Crane retired from active business some time ago and resigned the presidency of the company. He exchanged his stock certificates for mortgage bonds, and, presto! the identical property became subject to confiscatory taxation. Bonds of domestic concerns are not tax exempt. Hence the same person and the same property may be taxed or relieved of taxation one year and accorded diametrically opposite treatment the next year. Mr. Crane could not see why the mere exchange of stock for bonds should render him liable to a 40 or 50 per cent tax on the income of his securities.

The case of Mr. Rosenwald is more complicated. Mr. Rosenwald has not retired from business and does not wish to leave the state. It is not necessary to add that neither does he wish to violate or disobey the law, or to join the hosts of tax-dodgers. He wishes to pay a just tax. What has been his policy, his method? This question requires a reference to the "sanctions" of our revenue laws. It is the failure to inquire into the sanctions and penalties of the law that is responsible for the prevailing confusion and for the loose talk of persistent, defiant and stubborn tax-dodging on the part of men like Mr. Rosenwald.

The revised and "modernized" revenue law, passed about a decade ago, prescribes no fine or imprisonment in the case of the person who neglects or declines to file a complete and sworn schedule of his property. This law does *not* make it a criminal or indictable offence to fail to file a schedule accompanied by an affidavit under oath; it merely provides that where such failure has occurred, the assessors shall "estimate" the value of the citizen's property—taking such means of arriving at a sound estimate as may be available—and add thereto 50 per cent of the estimated total by way of penalty—the whole to be taxed at the legal rate. Now, tens of thousands of Illinoisans and Chicagoans, apprehending confiscation of their income from securities, fail to file sworn schedules and let the assessors *estimate* the full values of their respective possessions in personalty. Where the estimates or guesses are too extravagant, the citizens appeal to the reviewing board and obtain reductions. The reviewing board has been lenient and reasonable in granting such reductions, simply and merely because it has felt, as others have, that the present revenue law is antiquated and unenforceable. Mr. Rosenwald thus has acted as tens of thousands of his fellow-citizens, rich or relatively poor, have acted—that is, he has permitted the assessors to put their own valuation on his personalty and add the penalty of 50 per cent. This has become the established practice. Bad and utterly unscientific as such a method is from every point of view, in practice it has been found tolerable, for confiscation of income has at any rate been averted.

Unfortunately, the present state's attorney, Mr. Hoyne, adopted the position that the new revenue law, which repealed many of the provisions of the old one, did not repeal its "sanctions" or penal clauses. These, he claims, remained in full force and are in force now, so that in addition to the 50 per cent addition to the guessed-at assessors' total of a person's personalty, he may be subjected to the penalties of the old act—a fine of $200 and imprisonment in the county jail. Proceeding on this theory, the state's attorney sought last winter the indictment of a number of individuals and corporations for tax-dodging and actually secured a few indictments against "shining marks." On the very grand jury that returned the indictments there were men who had themselves committed the alleged offence for which they were calling others to account. Perhaps they thought it was their painful duty to return the indictments demanded by the state's attorney. It was suggested in one of the most conservative of the Chicago newspapers that they deserved "a leather medal" for their exhibition of civic virtue and courage—as well as for their disregard of fact and common sense.

If Mr. Hoyne is right in the position he has taken as to the concurrent operation of the two revenue laws with respect to their penal clauses, the situation is a serious one. He has the power to procure other indictments and to brand many excellent men and women as lawbreakers and willful tax-dodgers. Perhaps he can even obtain some convictions from trial juries, though this is doubtful. Convictions might hasten the revision of the revenue laws, say some of the supporters of the Hoyne crusade. But the revenue law cannot be revised in any essential so long as the present constitutional provision for a general property tax stands intact. And our legislature has until this year evinced little disposition to move toward a revision of the organic law. We can amend but one article at a time; and as there are several factions and several proposed constitutional amendments, the wrangling and mutual "reprisals" among these factions have heretofore blocked the way to revision, in any direction, while the liquor interests and the ultra-conservative elements of the state have persistently and successfully opposed the calling of a state convention to frame a new constitution responsive to changed needs and conditions.

It is possible, however, that the higher courts may overrule the state's attorney and decide that the sanctions of the revenue law of 1872 are not in force. The lower courts have had occasion to pass on the question and have disagreed. The county court has upheld the contention of Mr. Hoyne, while a judge of the circuit court has sustained the position taken by Mr. Rosenwald's attorney—that the penal clauses of the old act are dead—and has quashed the indictment against Mr. Rosenwald. Of course, the case of Mr. Rosenwald cannot be appealed, and he has no further or immediate occasion for worry. But in the other case an appeal has been taken and will in due time reach the supreme court of Illinois. The Appelate Court of Cook County has sustained the Circuit Court's view—the anti-Hoyne construction.

The agitation and demand for revenue reform are not new in Illinois. The legislature has just reluctantly and grudgingly responded to public sentiment, and the public sentiment is indubitably here. A very large vote was cast some years ago at a so-called "moral referendum" in favor of a proposal to submit to the electorate a constitutional amendment to the revenue article of the constitution. That moral referendum did not obligate the legislature to act, but it gave it ample evidence of the trend of public opinion regarding taxation. Further, a competent and able committee created by the legislature to study the revenue problem strongly recommended, as similar committees have in other states, the repeal of the general property tax and the adoption of an article enabling the legislature to *classify* property for purposes of taxation and to levy different rates in accordance with the nature and yield of the property subject to taxation.

There is every reason to believe that a proper law, embodying modern scientific ideas of taxation, would receive overwhelming approval in Illinois. Farmers' associations, labor bodies, manufacturers and merchants, the press—these and other agencies have gradually been converted to the idea of classification of property, of different rates of taxation to correspond with the use and yield of the property, and of the abolition, as far as possible, of double taxation. In short, the intolerable evils and the flagrant inequalities of the general property tax are now sufficiently realized. The difficulty is that tax or revenue reform is not yet in sight, and that for several years, at the best, we shall be forced to suffer and fumble and muddle under the present system. The legislature has at last, to the surprise and delight of many, voted to submit, in the fall of next year, a constitutional amendment enabling the legislature to classify *personal* property (and that alone) for taxation purposes. That amendment, not being sufficiently general, is attacked by some reformers, and it may be rejected. The legislature should have proposed a broader resolution, one authorizing the classification of *all* property. As it is, we have a new controversy on our hands, as well as a needless risk and danger of failure. Already it is called "the tax dodgers' amendment." At any time, for political or personal reasons, an unintelligent or rash and impetuous state's attorney may start a tax-enforcement "crusade" and attempt to mislead the public, to undo the educational work that has been done by earnest and thoughtful men in recent years. And even if locally the effect of such foolish and futile campaigns is nil, and the motives of the crusaders are perfectly well understood, outside of the state citizens unfairly branded as tax-dodgers and violators of the revenue laws are virtually without remedy.

It is felt in Chicago that a clear and unbiased presentation of the "Crane and Rosenwald tax cases" cannot fail to aid the cause of true tax reform throughout the United States. For demagogues and ignorant men clothed with brief authority will never cease arguing that the general property tax can be enforced if legislatures will but prescribe scorpions where whips have proved ineffectual, if more drastic and more "courageous" methods of compelling the listing of intangible personalty will but be sanctioned.

Moreover, a comprehension of these sensational cases may lead here or there a grand jury of independence and intellectual vigor to refuse to return morally unwarranted indictments and to make a vigorous presentment setting forth the absolute and inevitable failure of the general property tax and urging the people to wipe it out of existence. This, of course, is what the Cook County grand jury should have done in view of the notorious and indisputable facts and genesis of our tax situation.

THE FINANCIAL CONDITION OF OHIO MUNICIPALITIES[1]

BY KARL F. GEISER
Oberlin, Ohio

THE growth of cities and the reorganization of city governments throughout the United States, and the general extension of municipal activities, have forced the question of taxation to a position of first importance among all problems of government. In whatever form state constitutions, state laws and local conditions may force the problem upon the public, the common note running through all, everywhere, is a demand for greater local revenues. These revenues have increased during the last decade with the increase of population and the demand is still far from satisfied. The rising cost of municipal government in 146 cities of the United States, having a population of more than 30,000, was estimated by the census bureau, and showed that while the population of these cities increased during a period of eleven years, ending with 1912, 34.6 per cent, the per capita cost of government increased 45.7 per cent, and the total cost increased 96.1 per cent. Moreover, this estimate showed that the average cost of government per capita was larger for cities having a population of over 500,000 than for those having a population from 30,000 to 50,000, the cost in the former being $37.14 per capita, while in the latter it was $22.17.

These tendencies and conditions, with local variations, are also reflected in Ohio. The 82 municipalities in the state now contain more than one-half of the population. In the ten largest cities the increase from 1900 to 1910 varies from 11.6 per cent in Cincinnati to 76.2 per cent in Youngstown, the average increase being 35.8 per cent. The total urban growth of the state during the last census decade was 33.4 per cent, while the rural population decreased 2.7 per cent. Since the increased cost of government is often explained by the character of the population, the following table for Ohio is of special significance:

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[1] This article by Professor Karl F. Geiser of Oberlin College, is a supplement to an article upon "Municipal Revenues in Ohio," in the April number, by Professor S. G. Lowrie, and should be read in connection with that article. The present article is based upon the "Report of the Committee for an Investigation of Finances of Municipalities" now published in "Bulletin of the Ohio Legislature Reference Department," Columbus, February 3, 1915.—EDITOR.

		Per cent
Urban	Native white of native parentage,	51.0
	Native white of foreign or mixed parentage,	28.0
	Foreign born white,	17.9
	Negro,	3.1
Rural	Native white of native parentage,	79.6
	Native white of foreign or mixed parentage,	13.2
	Foreign born white,	5.7
	Negro,	1.4
State at large	Native white of native parentage,	63.6
	Native white of foreign or mixed parentage,	21.5
	Foreign born white,	12.5
	Negro,	2.3

The relation between foreign and native population in rural and urban communities, shown in this table, will be more significant, if we call attention to the fact that the present general assembly of the state is dominated by rural representatives who control legislation, and who fail to appreciate the peculiar problems arising from a mixed municipal population. Statistics might also be cited to show that, while general laws might meet the conditions of rural communities, the character of the population in different cities varies greatly. Of the foreign born male population of Cincinnati, of voting age, only 7,983 are unnaturalized, while Cleveland has 48,047 unnaturalized male foreigners of voting age, and 59,127 persons of ten years of age and over, who are unable to speak English. Yet the percentage of illiterates in Cleveland is only 4.6 per cent, while illiteracy in Youngstown, with a population of 80,000 is estimated as high as 9 per cent. These facts suggest varying needs for different cities in the work of assimilation, sanitation, education, charities and social welfare. They also suggest that great care should be taken in the drafting of all laws affecting uniformly all the municipalities of the state.

Now, while the Ohio Constitutional amendments of 1912 did provide for just these varying conditions and needs in the home rule clause, the Smith "One Per Cent Law" [2] in effect destroyed the local freedom necessary to meet the problems, which the constitution forced upon the municipalities, by placing a ten mill limit upon the rate of taxation, with a maximum of fifteen mills by a vote of the people. This was the chief cause of the present municipal embarrassment. Following the Smith law, which went into effect June 2, 1911, a series of enactments were put in force, which curtailed the revenue, and added to the cost of local government. A program of humanitarian and reform legislation was enacted, including laws relating to blind relief, mothers' pensions, workmen's compensation, special municipal courts, civil service commissions, an eight-hour day for public work, a revised method for the assessment of property for taxation and increasing election expenses through enlarging the field of the initiative and referendum. In a word, municipalities were forced by state legislation into wider activities upon a more limited budget.

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[2] Vol. iii, p. 254.

The financial embarrassment has been further increased by a recent ruling of the attorney general based upon a decision of the supreme court holding the present budget commission law unconstitutional. The present law provides that the county budget commission, which also provides for the city budget, be composed of the county auditor, the mayor of the largest city and the city solicitor in counties where the city property exceeds that of the rural; and in counties where the rural property exceeds that of the city, the president of the school board is to take place of the city solicitor. The constitutional provision upon which the decision is based provides that the budget commissioners shall be elective county officers. In accordance with this ruling the legislature, which has just adjourned, passed an emergency act providing for a reorganization of the budget commission. It is now composed of the county auditor, the county treasurer, and the county prosecuting attorney. Thus another step has been taken to defeat the home rule principle; and since the legislature has adjourned without giving relief, this situation will continue for two years unless, in the meantime, an extra session is called, which is not at all probable.

THE VINDICATION OF A. LEO. WEIL[1]

MUNICIPAL reformers and followers of civic movements were startled in January last by the press dispatches that A. Leo. Weil, the widely-known president of the Voters' League of Pittsburgh, and a member of the council of the National Municipal League, had been arrested in West Virginia "for an attempt to bribe the public service commissioners" of that state. Friends of Mr. Weil all over the United States, believing that the attack upon him must be in retaliation for some fight he was making against corruption, showered upon him letters and telegrams, expressing their confidence. A few days later Mr.

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[1] This article has been prepared at the request of the editor of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW by one who has had access to the testimony and court records and to the various articles published on the subject. C. R. W.

Weil charged in court that his arrest was the result of a "frame-up" inspired by the governor of West Virginia to intimidate him and prevent him from proving that the governor dominated and controlled by illegal means the public service commission.

The public have anxiously awaited the story, which has now been brought out in court, completely vindicating Mr. Weil and corroborating his statement of the case. It has also once again shown him in the rôle of indomitable antagonism to corruption in public office, hitting hard regardless of the personal risks.

It seems that Mr. Weil, as general counsel for a natural gas company engaged in business in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia, appeared at a rate hearing before the public service commission of West Virginia. With his wonted fearlessness he placed upon the record objections to the commission further proceeding with the hearing, because as he alleged the commissioners had been disqualified to sit as judges in the case, as they were dominated and controlled, and their findings in the case had been dictated in advance, by the chief magistrate, who had this power of coercion by reason of the fact that the commissioners were vacation appointments, not yet confirmed by the senate, and their names, or any of them, could be withdrawn at any time without explanation.

Having failed in efforts to drive Mr. Weil out of the case, and enraged at his exposure, Governor Hatfield, of the Hatfield family of feud fame, had Mr. Weil arrested while he was en route by train to Parkersburg, to attend a session of the federal district court, to urge the appointment of a master to take testimony in an equity suit brought in that court, to establish the facts in relation to these charges. Mr. Weil was arrested at midnight a few miles from Parkersburg, and in the custody of three officers like a desperate criminal, in spite of protest and offers to give bail, and a writ of habeas corpus issued by the federal judge; he was rushed through to Charleston and placed under excessive bail to appear a few days later for hearing before a justice of the peace. The night of the arrest, long before Mr. Weil reached Charleston, the news was given out to the press, that "A. Leo. Weil has been arrested for attempting to bribe the public service commissioners of West Virginia." It was no doubt expected that this publication would put a quietus upon the further efforts of Mr. Weil in the equity case. While the charge was thus labeled "attempted bribery," and so published, no such charge was ever made, as will presently appear. For the moment, however, the publicity was what was desired, and a less aggressive or less courageous fighter would have been completely cowed, but not so with Mr. Weil. He gave bail, got back to Parkersburg, and had the master appointed, the court having held over the case until Mr. Weil could return. On the application of Mr. Weil, and his statement in open court of what he proposed to prove, the master was given full power to inquire into the charges of coercion and domination of the commissioners by the governor, and a hearing fixed for an early date.

On the day before the date fixed for the hearing before the justice of the peace, on the charge against Mr. Weil, a special grand jury was empaneled, so as to secure an indictment, and thus prevent the facts from being brought out at the hearing. When the indictments were found, however, notwithstanding the publicity given to the charges of attempted bribery, the public was amazed to learn that no charge of bribery at all was involved, but, instead, it was only claimed (and even this Mr. Weil has proven was untrue), that through several intermediaries a promise to two of the public service commissioners was made that if these commissioners were called as witnesses in the cases then pending in the United States courts, and, as such witnesses, told the truth about the governor's interference, and, because they told the truth, they were dismissed from office by the governor, and thus lost their positions and their salaries, in that event the company which Mr. Weil represented would get them positions at the same salaries. It was not even contended that these commissioners were asked to tell anything but the truth. There was not even a contention that these commissioners, as witnesses, were asked to do or tell anything more than the law required them to do or tell.

Under an extraordinary rule of the Charleston criminal court during the time a defendant is being tried upon a serious charge, he is locked up in jail, regardless of the amount of bail he could give, or of any other consideration. This was one of the prospects held over the head of Mr. Weil, who accordingly applied to the state court having power of review of the criminal court, for a writ of prohibition, to prohibit the criminal court from proceeding with the trial under the indictment, upon the grounds that the indictments charged no crime, even if the allegations therein made were true; and that, in any event, the alleged attempt to interfere with a witness in the United States courts was triable exclusively in the United States courts, the state courts having no jurisdiction.

Meanwhile, the hearing was proceeded with before the master in the equity suit, and evidence was introduced from the mouths of some of the most prominent officials, lawyers and citizens of West Virginia, telling of statement after statement by the commissioners themselves, declaring in the most positive and emphatic terms that the governor absolutely controlled the commission, had directed the proceedings against the gas company, and had dictated what the decision should be even before the hearing was started, and that the commission was wholly dominated by the governor and obeyed his orders. Among other witnesses was an ex-governor, the chief clerk in the auditor's office, the reading clerk in the house of representatives, and numbers of prominent lawyers in the state, as well as other witnesses of the highest standing. There was also introduced a letter from one of the commissioners to the other commissioners; a letter from the governor to the commission; an executive order to the commission directing procedure; and other documentary evidence. The proof of coercion and control of the commission by the governor was overwhelming.

On the hearing of the application for the writ of prohibition, the court awarded the writ, thus prohibiting and enjoining the criminal court from further proceeding, the judge saying:

> I hold that the indictment does not charge that the defendant attempted to produce false testimony, or bribe a witness to swear falsely. I therefore think that the indictment is not good.
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> . . . . .
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> On the third question as to whether this defendant has committed an offence against the state law by attempting, as charged in the indictment, to procure evidence in the case pending in the federal court, I hold that the federal court has jurisdiction over that matter entirely, and that the intermediate court of this county has not. I therefore sustain the writ.
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> I do not find it a violation of the law for a man to offer a reward for the securing of the honest truth in any case in a court of justice, whether a man be litigant or lawyer. The truth can really hurt or wrong nobody.

From this decision the state has taken an appeal to the West Virginia supreme court of appeals, and that appeal will he heard some time this fall. Meantime the testimony before the master is proceeding. Mr. Weil has been upon the stand and has produced a number of witnesses, as well as documentary evidence, which would seem to show that the criminal proceedings against him were inspired by the governor to intimidate him and prevent him from making proof of the charge of coercion and domination of the commission by the governor. This evidence also shows that Mr. Weil did not authorize any one to make any promise of any kind to any of the commissioners, even a promise of reward for telling the truth; that while he had employed for his company a detective to rig up a dictaphone so as to get statements of two of the commissioners about the governor's coercion, this same detective, while apparently acting for Mr. Weil's clients, was in the pay of the governor, and it was the detective who authorized these offers to the commissioners, and not Mr. Weil, and turned over to the governor the evidence he was apparently getting for Mr. Weil's clients even Mr. Weil's letters to the detective agency. The man who made the offers to the commissioners testified that he had obtained his authority from the detective alone; that Mr. Weil had never given him any authority to make any promise whatever, but, on the contrary, when asked for such authority in the presence of three prominent lawyers, flatly refused, and stated that he would tolerate nothing of the kind. Mr. Weil testified to the same effect, denied that he had given any such authority to the detective, and was corroborated in this by his stenographer, who was present and took down in shorthand the instructions to the detective. The hearing has not been completed before the master, and Mr. Weil has stated in court that he has other witnesses yet to be examined, some of whom will give even more sensational testimony of the governor's interference with the commission, and of his use of their decisions for his own political purposes.

The bar of West Virginia regard the indictment as a desperate experiment in criminal law, with no precedent for such a prosecution. It is certain that if the authorities had not been stimulated to such pernicious activity by the charges of wrong-doing that had been made by Mr. Weil against the governor, no such desperate move to invoke the whole power of the criminal procedure of the state, along new and untried roads, would have been attempted.

The arrest of Mr. Weil at midnight, just within a few miles of Parkersburg, where he was to remain for some time; the hurrying of him under arrest to Charleston in charge of three officers; the demanding of excessive bail; the proceedings to avoid the hearing; the insidiousness of the charge sent out through the press the night of the arrest, that Mr. Weil had been "arrested for an attempt to bribe the public service commissioners," when this was not the charge; a letter from the governor to the presiding judge at Parkersburg who had under advisement the appointment of the master, which was published; interviews from time to time given out by the governor, and speeches made even since the decision on the writ of prohibition, in which the governor, notwithstanding the decision of the courts of his own state, reiterates the charge of bribery; all tend to sustain the charge of Mr. Weil that the governor is back of the whole proceeding, and that it was initiated to intimidate him and drive him from his pursuit of the governor in the equity case.

It is sad to contemplate how easily the telegraphic service of the newspapers of this country can be prostituted, while the service is innocent of wrong, for the purpose of destroying a man's reputation and good character. In this instance, again and again, both in the original news item and in the report of subsequent proceedings, the news agencies have headed the report with the statement: "A. Leo. Weil, who was arrested for an attempt to bribe the public service commissioners of West Virginia," while in fact there was no such charge made, and the publication of the real charge would have shown, even if true, that there was no moral turpitude charged in the complaint, much less any criminality. A man not so well known as Mr. Weil, nor whose reputation was so well established, might have been ruined in the good opinion of the world by these publications. It is humiliating to any man, especially to a man like Mr. Weil, who has made a reputation throughout this country as an implacable enemy of all sorts of graft, to have continued these false impressions of the nature of the charges that were made against him—false impressions created by these misleading statements of the press, however innocently made or continued. There should be some way for the Associated Press and like agencies to correct the doing of such grievous wrong.

COMPULSORY VOTING

BY W. T. DONALDSON[1]
Columbus, Ohio

WITH the growing frequency with which the direct referendum is made use of, not only in states where the initiative and referendum have become parts of the regular legislative machinery, but even in those states where referendums are ordered by the legislatures, much uneasiness is felt over the fact that each year a very large part of our enfranchised citizenship refrains from voting. Careful estimates seem to indicate that not less than 30 per cent and in many cases a much larger part of our electors do not vote. This makes possible the adoption of measures of far-reaching importance by minorities of our electorate. Whether a referendum measure is voted up or down, the losing side is dissatisfied and dislikes to accept as final the verdict of the voting minority. As a result there is coming from many different quarters a demand for a compulsory voting law to force majority rule.

About twenty-five years ago there was a considerable agitation for a compulsory voting law. The chief advocates of this scheme were David B. Hill, then governor of New York, and Edward M. Shepard, a prominent Democratic politician and lawyer. Both were practical politicians, thoroughly conversant with conditions as they existed. Their ostensible reasons for urging the adoption of the compulsory vote were:

(a) To impress upon voters a sense of duty and responsibility to the state;
(b) To take away one important shield for bribery;
(c) To put politics on a higher plane;
(d) To obtain for the state the benefit of the intelligent thought, judgment and conscience of the stay-at-home voter.

The framers of the Kansas City charter decided to try the experiment. A compulsory voting provision was inserted enforceable by a poll tax from which those who voted were exempt. This led to a supreme court test and in the famous decision of *Kansas City* vs. *Whipple*[2] the whole scheme received a set back that has deterred others from trying it. The argument of the court was that a man's legal rights are two—subject and sovereign, that voting is a sovereign right and cannot be enforced by law. This rather specious argument has been the principal one advanced up to the present, aside from the practical difficulty of enforcement. That a proposition is unconstitutional or difficult of enforcement does not suffice to keep it from our statute books permanently, if the majority of the people are convinced that it is sound in principle and correct in policy. A way is soon made for it by constitutional amendment. Unless compulsory voting shall be opposed on other grounds than those laid down in *Kansas City* v. *Whipple*, it is sure to come.

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[1] Deputy State Budget Commissioner. See Mr. Donaldson's article on "Absent Voting," NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 733.

[2] 136 Mo. 481.

As to the cogency of the arguments for the compulsory vote, serious questions have arisen and a brief discussion of the arguments already mentioned will be undertaken. Probably a strictly enforced law compelling every elector to vote would tend to impress upon him the fact that he is an integral part of our citizenship and directly responsible for the way in which the state is run. It is indeed true that there is too much of a tendency on the part of the elector to think, "I am only one of a million voters. What does my vote amount to?" But granting that such an idea is erroneous, does it follow that compelling him to go and vote or pretend to vote would convince him of his responsibility? Might it not rather gall him into a disgust with everything political?

The idea probably uppermost in the minds of the exponents of the compulsory vote a generation ago was to avoid the necessity and expense of resorting to what was termed "thinly veiled bribery" in hiring men and teams to work, and in the rural communities to transport voters to the polls. This scheme in practice would result in shifting the cost of getting out the vote from the politicians to the public for the state would have to bear the cost of getting out the vote. It is not necessary to discuss this evil with the idea that compulsory voting is a remedy, for our modern corrupt practice acts are attacking it successfully along other lines.

To put politics upon a higher plane, to attract into public life the best brains and conscience of our people are commendable motives. Politics a generation ago were largely questions of personnel and patronage. The electors could generally be counted on to vote their party ticket if they voted at all. Principles were not emphasized. The spectacular caught the attention and got votes. Red fire, grotesque parades, bands, and fireworks were the working tools of campaign managers. During the last two decades these conditions have greatly improved. The independent voters are becoming more numerous each year. Campaigns have become more educational. More emphasis is placed upon facts and arguments. Bulletins, excerpts from speeches and documents appealing to the judgment and interest of the voter, are the chief agencies of the vote getters. It is difficult to see how compulsory voting would tend to put politics on a higher plane.

The last argument was the one most emphasized. Political conditions, especially in our cities, were bad. What more natural than to suppose that good people did not vote and thieves and rogues made up the majority that carried the elections and plundered the public? Although no extensive investigation was made as to the character of the stay-at-home voters it is highly probable that at a time when nearly every city and county were in the hands of organized political plunderers money was not lacking to induce all venal voters to cast their ballots. But political conditions have changed in the last few years. Searching inquiry into the questions of the size and source of campaign funds and the methods of spending them and the purpose for which they are spent has made possible increasingly effective laws preventing the buying of votes. Probably, too, the increased size of the electorate to be appealed to would render it unprofitable to buy votes and a cheaper plan would have to be adopted even if the corrupt practice laws had not rendered such methods unsafe. The newer methods of appealing to the voter, not by a two-dollar bill but by mailing to him several pamphlets couched in striking language and re-enforced by imposing figures, very likely have operated to change the character of the stay-at-home voters. The ignorant and vicious voter is not interested in new schemes of taxation, direct legislation devices and municipal reform. Eliminating the two-dollar bill tends to eliminate him.

These theories are borne out by facts taken in a recent survey of several precincts in Columbus and Cincinnati in which the character of the non-voting elector in the November 1913 election was the chief subject of study. A wealthy residence, a well-to-do, but not wealthy residence, and a colored slum district were surveyed, in both Cincinnati and Columbus. In the latter city a white slum precinct was surveyed also. The election in 1913 was one that would seem to appeal to all the classes that could be reached at any election. Columbus had barely recovered from the effects of the disastrous flood of the preceding spring. An eight and a half million dollar bond issue for flood protection was to be referred to the people along with several other city measures. The state measures to be voted on were an initiated measure to prohibit shipment of liquor into dry territory backed by the anti-saloon league, a proposition for the exemption of bonds of the state and political subdivisions from taxation, one making women eligible to appointment to boards of management of state institutions admitting women, one an initiated constitutional amendment for a small legislature, and a referred amendment for a short ballot. Besides these important and widely advertised measures, the city officials were to be elected and the usual vigorous local campaign ensued.

In Cincinnati, in addition to the state-wide measures already referred to, a particularly bitter and vigorous campaign was carried on by the opposing parties for the control of the city government. Mayor Hunt, representing the progressive element, was nominated; opposed to him were the many forces who were dissatisfied with him personally and those who were not in sympathy with the radical changes he proposed, together with the old crowd who had backed the old Geo. B. Cox regime. Under these conditions there were not lacking factors that appeal to both the ignorant and intelligent, the venal and incorruptible, and the non-voting part of the electorate were probably fairly representative of the usual stay-at-home voters.

Tables follow, showing the total number of voters interviewed, the number and per cent of those who did not register and the number and per cent of those who neither registered nor voted:

COLUMBUS[1]

CHARACTER OF PRECINCT	TOTAL NO. OF VOTERS	DID NOT REGISTER		DID NOT VOTE	
		NUMBER	PER CENT	NUMBER	PER CENT
Wealthy Residence[2]	214	27	12.6	41	19.1
Well-to-do Residence[3]	227	44	19.4	51	22.47
White Slum Section[4]	187	45	24	66	35.2
Colored Slum Section[5]	228	73	32	103	45

CINCINNATI[6]

CHARACTER OF PRECINCT	TOTAL NO. OF VOTERS	DID NOT REGISTER		DID NOT VOTE	
		NUMBER	PER CENT	NUMBER	PER CENT
Wealthy Residence	226[7]	9	4	29	12
Well-to-do	318	16	5	30	9.6
Poor—Largely Colored[8]	169	26	15.4	36	21

[1] Data obtained from house to house canvass through the co-operation of Professor Coker of the Department of Political Science of Ohio State University.

[2] One of the finest residence districts in the city.

[3] Good residence district, not wealthy.

[4] "Red light" district—population mostly white.

[5] One of the worst districts in the city; population predominatingly colored but also contains many foreigners.

[6] Data obtained from house to house canvass of precincts under direction of Prof. C. O. Gardner of the University of Cincinnati.

[7] Twelve voters not typical of the precinct were not counted.

[8] Data from this precinct not complete.

Voters not typical of their respective precincts were eliminated. In Columbus the better precincts showed 12.6 per cent and 19.4 per cent, respectively, of the voters did not register; from the slum precincts they numbered 24 per cent and 32 per cent, respectively. The better precincts indicate that 19 per cent and 22 per cent, respectively, did not vote while the slum precincts showed 35 per cent and 45 per cent, respectively, of non-voters. The white slum precinct was on the West Side in the flood district and it is probable that the percentages of non-voters for this precinct were less than normal. Eliminating those who were absent from the precinct either at registration time or on election day the table for Columbus is as follows:

Character of Precinct	Total Number of Voters	Did Not Vote	
		Number	Per cent
Wealthy Residence	191	18	9.4
Well-to-do Residence	204	28	13.7
White Slum	169	48	28.4
Colored Slum	219	94	42.9

Eliminating further all who had good excuses like sickness and inability to fulfill residence requirements the table is as follows:

Character of Precinct	Total Number of Voters	Did Not Vote	
		Number	Per cent
Wealthy Residence	183	10	5.46
Well-to-do Residence	194	18	9.28
White Slum	158	37	23.4
Colored Slum	202	77	38.1

In Cincinnati less emphasis was placed on the number who did not register or vote, the chief object being a study of the character of the non-voters. It is probable that many who neither registered nor voted were not found. From those interviewed, however, the percentage who did not register in the slum district was more than three times as great as in the better precincts, while the percentage of those who did not vote was about twice as great.

From such data absolute facts as to the relative number of decent and vicious voters that a compulsory voting law would affect cannot be deduced. Without a doubt there are many more respectable than slum precincts and a smaller percentage of voters affected from each of the larger number of the better precincts might more than overbalance in total numbers the larger percentage from the less desirable precincts. One fact which stands out clearly contrary to the *guesses* of those who have advocated compulsory voting is that the habit of not voting is much more pronounced among the undesirable electors than among the desirable, and that the wisdom of any attempt to improve the character of our electorate by a law compelling the universal exercise of the suffrage is extremely doubtful. That the character might be improved by other means seems evident. A law permitting voters necessarily absent from their precincts either during the time for registration or on election day to register or vote, either before they leave the precinct or by mail, would enable many thousand of railroad employes, traveling salesmen, students, teachers and other intelligent electors to vote. It is estimated that such a law in Kansas has resulted in enfranchising 5,000 per year.

Besides an absent voting law, another reform that would give the state the benefit of the judgment of many thousands more of the electors, would be brought about by a revision of our archaic and senseless provisions concerning residence requirements. There is no reason why a voter moving into Ohio from Indiana or Kentucky should be compelled to live in Ohio a year before voting for presidential electors. His status with respect to the president of the United States has not changed. Neither does his status change with respect to state-wide measures or candidates in moving from one county to another, or with regard to affairs pertaining to the whole city in changing precincts. These propositions seem axiomatic, but it is argued that these injustices are incident to a proper safeguard against the harm that might result if temporary residents with no local interest and little local information were given a voice in our governments. That floaters might not be imported to affect any particular election, a short residence requirement is necessary. If we except this class is there any danger of our governments being debauched by short residence electors? Would it not be probable that a man moving from Indiana into Ohio would have the welfare of the state of Ohio—his future home—at heart as much as a longer resident? If he were not well informed on state or local measures would he not be likely either to inform himself or not vote on them? If we admit the worst and assume that he would vote by guess, would he be any more of a menace than thousands of others? In a few districts where large aggregations of voters are located temporarily and have no permanent interest, to allow them to vote on local measures might not be desirable, but might not such situations be met by an absent voting law?[3]

THE DEDICATION OF A CITY CLUB[1]

VERY properly the Boston City Club is proud of its achievement in building up a membership of 5,500 members in eight years. It is without question the largest "get together" club in the country and the dedication of its new club house is an event of more than ordinary or passing importance. So successful has the club been in carrying out its objects and purposes that one governor of Massachusetts called it a "civic university."

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[3] An effort was made at the legislative session just closed to pass an absent voting law, but only that part which permits students to vote in the precinct where they are living temporarily passed.

[1] The editor had considerable difficulty in securing an article on the dedication of the Boston City Club. Finally one was submitted which, if printed, would have taken perhaps 25 pages of the magazine. While he appreciated the significance of the event he did not feel, in view of the pressure upon his pages, justified in devoting quite so much space, so he prepared the article which appears from this more extended manuscript. He happened to express his embarrassment and difficulty to a Boston correspondent, who replied as follows:

"Possibly the real difficulty is that it is rather hard for the average man to surround a matter of fact proposition with a great deal of imagination. Kipling might write a poem about the city club which would be effective. To most of us, however, the club appears ordinarily as simply an improved sort of hotel where you give all your tips in one bunch at Christmas instead of spreading them along through the year, and have a drawing card in free lectures or concerts on Thursdays evenings. The organization is not even original enough to dispense with the income from liquor and cigars. Yet I have no doubt it is useful to the city. Its enthusiastic admirers, however, seem to me to magnify that usefulness unduly."

The new home of the club was occupied February 15 and formally dedicated on March 11 of this year, the ground having been broken on July 24, 1913, and the cornerstone laid on October 9 of the same year, with Professor William H. Taft, a member of the club, as the chief figure. The dedication was eventful in its simplicity and significance, the entire building of fourteen floors being filled with interested members, over 3,000 being present. The exercises were so planned as to give a history and a vision of the future, and to show the value of a non-partisan, non-sectarian city club in a community.

In his opening address President Frederick P. Fish touched upon what is perhaps the keynote of the success of the club, declaring it to be truly democratic to the core in that "each and every man is equal to each and every other man in the club and knows it, while at the same time there is that co-operation between the various members which enables great results to be attained by developing on the part of each member that capacity to help in the club work which seems greatest in him." From the beginning the success of the Club has been based on the fact of co-operation and that good men and true were found to do the work and when found were cordially and loyally supported by the whole membership. President Fish further declared that the club proposed to promote good fellowship, to make life easier for its members to play the part of students and thinkers and investigators in all respects which pertain to the members and the interests of the community. "We propose to be an illustration," he said, "of what can be accomplished in this day and generation when men come together, when they sink all differences and work for the sake of the common good."

If any one man is entitled to a large measure of credit for the conception and organization of the club it is Edward A. Filene, who was one of the principal speakers at the dedication. James J. Storrow, who was also one of the founders, referred to the early days when the membership of the Club was but a "scanty lot." Mr. Storrow, however, referring to the large part Mr. Filene had played in the building up of the club said: "The club is a civic institute which benefits our city. It is true our furniture in time may fade. Perhaps even some of these plates and glasses by the aid of which we have just sumptuously fed may become broken. What is it that we must never permit to fade, but which we hope five years, ten years, and one hundred years from now will be as bright and untarnished as the day the club was founded? It is the two ideals, or what seem to me at least two of our stock of ideals, for which the club stands. First, friendship—not the pretended variety of friendship, but the genuine, sympathetic friendship among our members, broad as this great cosmopolitan city of ours. Second, tolerance—but that does not seem to me exactly the word. Tolerance means merely taking another man's ideas on sufferance. Open-mindedness is perhaps a better expression. We are five thousand strong. We have among our members the man who hitches his wagon to a star. He has just been talking to you (referring to Mr. Filene). We have also among our members the man who hitches his wagon to his grandfather. We have also the man who hitches his wagon to a dollar. The star-gazer conceives the ideal, the dollar man tells us the material cost, the ancestor worshiper tells us what his grandfather would have thought or done about it. It is well to have all these viewpoints before we act. Even some of our grandfathers were pretty shrewd old men. Our second ideal is to prove that within the walls of this clubhouse we can sit down and discuss our varying ideas and opinions in friendly fashion and with mutual respect and good will. It is in this particular respect that the city club of Boston is so successful, simply because it has brought together in friendliness and comradeship men of the most diverse views and upbringing to discuss questions of common views and aims. In this way it has promoted a solidarity which in time must prove of the very greatest value to the city."

Governor Walsh in his address voiced the widespread sentiment that there had been a surfeit of partisan politics and congratulated the organization because it means a better understanding between man and man, because it means that in Massachusetts in the future, when men like those assembled meet together to discuss questions without asking "Is it Democratic," or "Is it Republican," or "Is it Progressive," but will consider the question solely, "Is it for the welfare of Boston and of Massachusetts."

The total cost of the building was $541,650 or $5,400 more than the estimate. The Club was organized in 1904 with 500 charter members, and has grown with remarkable rapidity until the present membership is 5,200, with a waiting list of 2,000. The officers of the Club are: Frederick P. Fish, president; James W. Rollins, first vice-president; W. T. A. Fitzpatrick, second vice-president; Morgan A. Cooley, treasurer; James E. Downey, secretary; and Addison L. Winship, civic secretary, to whose leadership a large share of the credit for the work of the club and the building must be ascribed.

THE USE OF MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP TO ABOLISH TRANS-MISSISSIPPI FREIGHT AND PASSENGER TOLLS

BY ROGER N. BALDWIN[1]
St. Louis

THE last act in St. Louis' greatest municipal drama, the free bridge fight, was concluded this spring with the sale of $2,750,000 of municipal bonds for the completion of the bridge,—which has hung unfinished over the Mississippi for three years. Since 1906 the construction of this bridge has been the leading issue in St. Louis politics. Around it the entire progress of the city has shaped itself, for it has been the chief local issue in the country-wide struggle between monopoly and the people. Around it a half dozen hot campaigns have been waged. Scandal, bribery, corruption and intrigue have marked the years of struggle.

The fight was really concluded at the special election last November, held by order of initiative petition, at which the bonds to complete the bridge were voted seven to one. Three times previously these bonds had been defeated at the polls and the incompleted bridge had stood across the river without an eastern approach for three long years, ridiculed by press at home and abroad as "the longest bridge in the world—the bridge without an end."

The fight is of interest outside St. Louis, not only because it has been the basic issue of local politics for the past ten years, but because it involves a really significant use of municipal ownership to curb a complicated and extensive railroad monopoly. The hope of those who in 1906 started the project is justified by recent developments which have shown to be futile appeals to the interstate commerce commission and to the United States supreme court. Only the free bridge remains between the people of St. Louis and the discriminatory tolls across the Mississippi, known as the "bridge arbitrary" or "differential."

The evil which the free bridge aims to remove is complicated and unusual. Briefly the situation is this: All the railroads entering St. Louis, 45 in number, are combined in an association known as the Terminal Railroad Association, whose expenses are paid jointly by the railroads, according to the service rendered each. This service consists in the use of common passenger and freight terminals, switching, and the up-keep of yards, tracks, bridges and the union station. This association controls every means of ingress into St. Louis across the Mississippi, including not only the two railroad bridges at St. Louis, but the only other bridge across the Mississippi for many miles; namely, at Alton, 40 miles north.

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[1] Secretary, Civic League of St. Louis.

One of the two bridges at St. Louis was built originally for the special purpose of affording an independent entrance into St. Louis, but it was bought out by the terminal long ago. A senatorial investigation has recently been started into the legality of this transfer with a view to annulling the federal grant.

Ever since the terminal was organized it has charged different rates for freight and passengers to East St. Louis on the eastern bank of the river in Illinois, and to St. Louis on the western. It has charged tolls for every vehicle and foot-passenger crossing the river. East St. Louis has been built up largely on the favorable freight rates which St. Louis did not enjoy, although the two cities compose one industrial district. The discrimination in rates on freight originating more than 100 miles from St. Louis was abolished in recent years but has remained on freight orginating within that zone, which includes practically all the coal used in the St. Louis district, mined nearby in Illinois.

Years ago St. Louis shippers rebelled against this discrimination without success. The revolt grew among the people. The press was insistent. In 1905 it took definite form in a proposal to issue $3,500,000 in bonds to construct a municipally-owned bridge across the river to be free to any railroad which chose to use it, and to afford free passage for vehicles and foot passengers. It was the belief of the promoters that some of the railroads would break away from the terminal association and seize an opportunity to use an independent entrance into the city. The campaign was brought quickly to a successful conclusion, the bonds being voted in 1906 by over ten to one. At this time certain engineers predicted that the bridge could not be built for $3,500,000, and that $6,000,000 would be nearer the correct figure, including the eastern and western railroad approaches. That prediction proved to be true, for after the piers were built and the span thrown across the river, the money was exhausted. The bridge stood useless without approaches.

It was evident new bonds had to be issued. Then began campaigns to secure the approval of the voters. Under the law a two-thirds favorable vote was required. The attempt to secure the bonds was at once blocked by a new issue, raised by the most earnest friends of the bridge, that the terminal controlled the land on the Illinois side chosen for the approach, and that it could exact tolls for crossing its property and tracks just as effectively as it has collected tolls for crossing the river. The tolls might be in the form of switching charges, but they would be tolls nevertheless. Although the city was given the right of eminent domain by congress to condemn land in Illinois, it was charged that the approach selected by the city was "bottled" by the terminal on all sides.

The issue was further complicated by the city's granting to a new interurban traction company, represented by a former notorious political boss, a fifty-year franchise over the uncompleted bridge into St. Louis, with a loop through the downtown business district. The case of the people against the terminal was also intensified by long standing grievances, especially the company's failure to live up to clear franchise obligations. The feeling was evidenced, for instance, in a bitter controversy in the municipal assembly on the proposition of vacating to the terminal certain unmade streets for switching purposes on property owned by the company. The vacation was finally refused, although the terminal offered $1,000,000 for the privilege, on the sole ground that the company should first comply with its franchise obligations, and also abolish the so-called "arbitrary charges" across the river.[2]

Union labor, which is numerically and politically powerful in St. Louis, also injected another issue into the bridge campaign, insisting that only St. Louis union labor should be employed in the construction of the bridge, protesting the importation of outside labor. (A "gentleman's agreement," however, was entered into before the recent election to employ union labor exclusively.)

With these complications three elections were fought in heated controversy. Most of the voters evidently felt either that they knew nothing about the merits of the complicated situation or preferred to play safe by voting "no." Two special elections brought out a comparatively small vote and the question submitted at a general election was overwhelmingly beaten. The location of the east side approach was the uppermost issue, for it involved the question of whether the bridge was to be free or controlled by the terminal. Some suggested an inquiry by the United States government as the way out; others thought a new belt line fifteen miles in length encircling the city of East St. Louis should be constructed to "break the bottle," others that an elevated bridge should be built directly across the city of East St. Louis. The city administration, however, stuck by the original selected approach with a mile extension to get beyond the limits of the city of East St. Louis, which is commonly understood to be controlled by the terminal and its allies (and which by the way, the second city of Illinois, is one of the worst-governed cities in the Union).

The patriots who had fostered the bridge in the name of the people became the opponents of completion along the lines worked out by the city administration, charging that they were working in the interest of the terminal. The issue of the "Big Cinch versus the People" came to the front, the "big cinch" representing the terminal and other utility companies.

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[2] It is interesting to note that since the bridge bond election to complete the bridge, the use of this tract has been granted to the terminal without any public opposition whatever, and without any compensation from the company. This was largely because the issues between the city and the terminal have been settled, but also because of the company's promise to give up to the city without litigation next December a valuable eleven mile line of double tracks on the river front, the franchises for which expire at that time. This will open up municipal ownership of river and freight terminals.

In the struggle for larger popular control of the situation the representatives of the "people's group" made an initiative and referendum amendment to the charter a local campaign issue in November, 1912. It carried at the polls by just the necessary three-fifths vote. Quite unexpectedly it proved to be the weapon in the hands of the public which led to the completion of the bridge and smashed the obstructive tactics of a combine in the bi-cameral municipal assembly which had become a public scandal. Conservative business interests which had mildly opposed the initiative and referendum were the first to use it. Disgusted with the ridicule heaped upon the city by the unfinished bridge and by the obstinate tactics of both the assembly combine and the radical friends of the bridge, they secured a monstrous initiative petition of some 40,000 names (25 per cent), the largest municipal initiative petition ever filed in the United States, and forced a special election for bridge bonds November 7, 1914. The conversion of business men to the initiative came at a time when a new city charter was in preparation by a board of freeholders and doubtless paved the way for the passage of that charter in June 1914, for it contains the most radical initiative, referendum and recall provisions in effect in any metropolitan city in the union.

But the final bond election would never have been won on the strength of the initiative petition and the backing of business interests. What largely turned the tide in the end was the eleventh-hour repeal of the fifty-year traction franchise, with its spectacular turn-down of a once-powerful political boss. This was accomplished by pressure on the lawmakers from the press and civic organizations of the city. This blow to political bossism and to the utility companies behind political bossism made the public feel that its cause had been vindicated. Although a small irreconcilable element continued to fight in the name of the people, it was able in the election to muster only a few thousand votes, largely in the socialist and radical labor groups.

Another factor which doubtless contributed largely to the success of the bond election was the tremendous amount of public spirit aroused by the great pageant and masque[3] given in Forest Park in May 1914. It was the largest out-door civic spectacle ever staged, and reviewed the history of St. Louis, with a symbolic dramatic interpretation of its present and future. A month later the new city charter was passed by a comfortable majority in the face of the three to one defeat of a similar but less radical charter three years previous.

The progressive spirit built upon this pageant and masque has united the forces of the city attempting to build the "Greater St. Louis," and has given them new strength and new purpose. The big issues between the utility companies and the city have apparently been entirely settled. The utilities themselves seem to appreciate this, for their attitude toward the public is changing. There is now in St. Louis no political bossism of the type of even three short years ago. There is comparatively little of the old-time active participation of utility companies in politics. The "big cinch," as a political issue, is dead. The question of municipal ownership of privately-owned utilities is coming to the front as a practical proposition.

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[3] See vol. iii, pp. 401, 783.

The municipal bridge stands to-day as the leading achievement in municipal ownership, for it is the one promise of relief for the citizens of St. Louis from the most burdensome monopoly fastened upon the city. All railroads will be allowed to use it on equal terms at a fixed annual charge, provided that they make the same rate on freight and passengers to St. Louis as to East St. Louis. It is by no means yet certain that any of the railroads will break away from the terminal and use the bridge.

Whether it will in fact abolish all discriminatory rates is an open question. But it has become increasingly certain since the bonds were voted that there is no other way open. Both the interstate commerce commission and the federal supreme court have since then handed down decisions in cases brought by citizens and shippers (the Business Men's League, the leading business organization, and the *Post-Dispatch*, owned by the Pulitzer Publishing Co.) during the long years of the struggle. The issue of discriminatory rates across the Mississippi was fought out in the courts, the courts dividing time and again. The final order made the terminal a common carrier but practically legalized the toll charges. The interstate commerce commission also took the view that a different rate to the east and west sides of the river was proper and that the existing rates were not unreasonable.

Now that the great fight is over, one significant fact stands out. It has been a tremendous educational force in developing the power of democracy. It has bred the progressive spirit which was responsible for the initiative and referendum amendment to the old charter, for the democratic provisions of the new charter and for the accepted conviction that our problems must be settled, not by a few, but by all of us. St. Louis is a city to-day where "the people rule," perhaps not always wisely or well, but they do really control. Political bossism and public utilities in politics are doubtless influences all of the past. The fight has done for St. Louis, politically and spiritually, what the "three-cent street car fare" fight did for Cleveland. St. Louis has learned the need for democratic power, and she is now just beginning to learn how to apply it.

NOTES AND EVENTS

I. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

Charter Revisions.[1]—*California Amendments.* Those who have made even a superficial study of the intricate subject of municipal home rule will appreciate the need for the frequent amendment of the California constitution to effectuate the ideals of self-government of the people of that state. Having worked out, in 36 years' experience, with much satisfaction, the general problem, California has recently been making some important adjustments affecting the minor processes of charter amendment and the relation of the city to the county in which it is situated, and to its environs.

These amendments, adopted at the last November election, which are of far-reaching significance, are as follows:

Article XI, sections 6 and 8 have been changed so that city charters no longer need to contain a detailed enumeration of municipal powers, but each city is free to act concerning any "municipal affair" unless its own charter precludes such action.

Article XI, section 6 also provides "for the performance by county officers of certain of the municipal functions of cities and towns" by and through a majority vote of the electors of such cities and towns. This amendment is designed to eliminate the duplication of effort and expense in the performance of similar duties by two sets of officers. Whether the design is to be accomplished may depend upon judicial construction of the phrase "certain of the municipal functions."

Further amendments to Article XI, section 8, limit the period in which amendments may be submitted to the legislature; impose upon county clerks instead of city clerks, the duty of passing upon the sufficiency of petitions for holding a charter election; extend from 20 to 30 days the time after the filing of a petition within which the election of freeholders must be held; provide for the nomination and election of freeholders by the method prescribed in the charter for the selection of other city officers; authorize the governing body of the city to extend by 60 days the time within which the charter may be drafted; and provide that the charter shall be printed once (instead of ten times) in a local newspaper and that the city shall print the charter in pamphlet form and advertise the fact that copies may be had upon application. The time between the publication of the charter and its submission to popular vote is extended from 40 to 60 days. The section now also provides for the submission of "separate propositions, whether alternative or conflicting, or one included within the other." In case of a conflict, the section receiving the highest number of affirmative votes of those adopted, controls.

Article XI, section 8 1/2 is intended to facilitate local control over municipal and county boundaries. Provision is made for the formation of a city and county out of any city having 50,000 inhabitants or more, or by territory composed by union of such a city with incorporated or unincorporated contiguous territory. A consolidated city and county may annex contiguous incorporated or unincorporated territory which was in the same county when the consolidated city and county was formed. In the foregoing cases the consent of each unit, *i. e.*, the city, the annexed incorporated or unincorporated unit or territory and the county or counties involved, must be secured. The annexed cities or territory become responsible for their just proportion of the debt of the consolidating city.

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[1] Prepared by H. S. Gilbertson, Short Ballot Organization, New York.

Article XII, section 23, adjusts the powers of the state utilities commission as to the regulation of local utilities. Where the constitution formerly guaranteed the cities such control over their public utilities as the voters acting under laws to be passed by the legislature should elect to retain, under the new section, the city's power over local public utilities extends only to the making and enforcing of local, police, sanitary and other regulations *other than the fixing of rates*, whenever the legislature shall confer powers over local utilities upon the state commission which are in conflict with those previously enjoyed by the city. The city is, however, not restricted in its right to grant franchises for any public utility under the terms of a general law.[1]

San Diego's New Charter. San Diego has been heralded in the California press as having adopted, on March 23, the city manager plan. Even the local newspapers of that town talk about their "city manager." As a matter of fact, San Diego now has a form of city government which is about as far from the city manager plan as could be. Under the amendment the mayor, separately elected, is "the chief executive officer of the city" and among other things appoints the chief of police. The five members of the common council, who receive salaries of $2,000, act as the heads of departments, as in commission-governed cities, but it is to be noted that

> all executive and administrative powers relating or pertaining to the harbor, public streets, public buildings, sewer system, water system and the office of the city engineer shall be vested in a department to be known as the operating department. The executive head of such department shall be know as the manager of operation. Said manager shall be subject to recall in the same method as provided in this charter for the recall of elective officials.

The manager of operation and his assistants are appointed by the council, and unless such appointment is made by a four-fifths vote, must be confirmed by the mayor. And so this official, after all, is nothing more than a city engineer whose allegiance is divided between the mayor, thecouncil and the people.

The San Francisco Charter Amendments. The charter election held on March 16 placed 36 propositions before the people. A well-informed correspondent writes: "Of the 36 only five were carried, and the only one of importance was that changing the limit of taxation for current expenses from $1.00 on the $100 to $1.65. The dollar limit has not been observed since the fire in 1906, the increased tax rate being carried along under the emergency provision of the charter, which requires the unanimous vote of the board of supervisors and the approval of the mayor. The supreme court, however, has decided that the emergency does not exist and declared the excess taxes illegal. The amendment makes no actual change in the tax rate collected in recent years.

"The other amendments approved were No. 6, giving the supervisors authority to postpone payment of taxes from the end of November to the first of January; No. 21, giving the superintendent of schools a vote in the board of education; No. 23, empowering the police department to destroy deadly weapons taken from arrested persons; and No. 36, postponing any salary increase until the next fiscal year. The last one was of no effect, as no salary raises were ratified.

"The total vote cast was only 55,300, which is something over one-third of the registration."

Newburgh adopts Plan "C." On May 1, Newburgh, N. Y., adopted Plan "C" under the New York optional city government law by a vote of 1,432 to 1,087, following the example of Niagara Falls, which did the same thing last November. Both local papers supported the movement with the fullest sort of publicity. The credit for initiating the election is due to the Tax-Rent Payers' League.

Preferential Voting Constitutional. On

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[1] Based on a carefully prepared statement by Judge Lewis R. Works, of Los Angeles.

April 21, Supreme Court Justice Berger upheld the constitutionality of the preferential ballot law which applies to all New Jersey cities under commission government. Senator Strong, who sued out a writ of certiorari to set aside the recent election in New Brunswick, contended that the voter was compelled under the law to vote for five officers or none at all, under penalty of having his ballot thrown out and that the ballots used in New Brunswick election failed to leave a space after each name. The decision removes all doubt as to the legality of the elections recently held in New Brunswick, Bayonne and Hoboken.

Commission Government Legislation. During the recent session of the Pennsylvania legislature, attempts were made to amend several features of the Clarke commission government act relating to third class cities. One of these, which would have eliminated the non-partisan feature, was defeated through the efforts of the League of Third Class Cities. The latter organization was also successful in having passed a bill extending the term of councilmen to four years. The civil service bill for cities of the third class which had been introduced by the League was defeated, but a bill making the mayors of third class cities eligible for re-election was successful.

Iowa now has two laws permitting cities to employ managers. One of these relates to smaller cities and gives the council the right to hire a manager without changing the system of government. Another measure, which was fathered by the Waterloo Commercial Club, gives cities the right to vote on a new charter which makes provision for a city manager. Preparations are now being made in Waterloo for the adoption of this act.

Commission Government in Moline, Ill. A strenuous effort was made to abandon the commission form of government in Moline and return to the old form of government. The total vote was: No, 3,785; yes, 4,721. It is generally conceded that it was the vote of the women which determined the issue. Another interesting and satisfactory feature of the election was the re-election of the mayor, Martin R. Carlson, and the election of G. E. Ericson and C. B. Johnson as commissioners. Only one of the old commissioners was defeated.

Massachusetts now has an optional city government law (Chapter 267 of 1915) similar to those of New York, Ohio and Virginia. This enactment grew out of the desire of the cities to break their legislative shackles and of the legislature to escape the burden of passing upon hundreds of special local bills. Massachusetts has hitherto allowed its cities perhaps less freedom than any state in the union.

This new act, which effects a moderate degree of home-rule, provides for four optional plans. The first of these (Plan "A") provides for a mayor, and a city council, the city councillors to be elected at large. The mayor under this plan has power to appoint and remove all the heads of departments and municipal boards, except members of the school committee, *without* confirmation by the city council.

Plan "B" calls for a mayor elected for two years and a council elected partly by districts and partly by wards. The councilmen elected at large are to serve for two years, and those elected from wards for one year. In cities having more than seven wards, the city council is to be composed of fifteen members, one from each ward and the remainder at large. In cities of seven wards or less the council consists of eleven members similarly chosen. The mayor appoints and removes heads of departments and boards, but only *with* the consent of the council.

Plan "C" is the commission form. The terms of the commissioners are four years, to expire in alternating years.

Plan "D" provides for a mayor, city council and a city manager. The city council consists of five members (elected at large for two years, terms to expire in rotation.) The mayor is that member of the council who at the election at which three[1] members are chosen received the highest number of votes cast. He presides at meetings of the council and is the

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[1] At the first election the one receiving the highest number of the five elected is so designated.

"official" head of the city, but has no veto power. The city manager exercises all the powers assigned to that officer under orthodox commission-manager charters.

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Public Utilities.[1]— *Telephone rates in Pennsylvania.* A brief of the Chamber of Commerce of Pittsburgh has been filed by the counsel of the Chamber, chief of whom is Mr. H. Findlay French, of Baltimore, with the Public Service Commission of Pennsylvania, giving the reasons why the Commission should not attempt at the present time to determine the fair value of the property of the Bell Telephone Company. This case was originally filed by the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce on November 19, 1913. The complaint set out in detail certain charges which it alleged to be excessive, unfair and discriminatory. The Bell Telephone Company then voluntarily presented to the Public Service Commission (the case originally started under the old Railroad Commission) evidence as to the value of its entire property throughout the state of Pennsylvania. This evidence was submitted in minutest detail. It is currently reported that the company spent $250,000 in making this report.

Counsel for the Chamber of Commerce of Pittsburgh now asks the Commission not to accept this testimony as a basis for a fair value until an intensive study of Pittsburgh telephone conditions should be made "because no independent investigation has as yet been made of the company's records," "because the company's claims for value are inflated," and "because the evidence in the case as to the original cost of the property is insufficient."

The company's claims as to its fair value is based on the reproduction method solely. The brief points to the "unfairness" of this method as used by this company. It gives a long list of the "distortions" of value claimed by the company, only a few of which can be cited here. Thus the company claimed a reproduction value for its buildings of $4,077,852. This cost of replacement in no instance took account of present values. Thus the company claimed a reproduction value of $268,560 for a building at 11th and Filbert Streets, which one witness for the company, Mr. Frank Mauren, said was "worth nothing more than tearing down." Moreover, the estimate for replacement costs was based on "prospective work," and the contractors knew the purposes for which the estimates were asked. They therefore probably did not make as low estimates "as they would have made if they had been bidding on actual work for which there was reasonable competition."

The company claimed an addition of 2½ per cent each year to the cost "of a building erected in 1899" because this percentage "represents the average increased cost of abor and materials throughout this period." This increase in cost of labor and materials the company alleges should be a part of its fair value. This latter claim was slightly modified by the company so that instead of getting an extra "profit of $67,300" in thirteen years on a building worth $100,000 in 1899, they allowed themselves "a profit of only $22,177."

The company claimed a reproduction value for its pole lines of $8,295,059. The basis taken was a study of the unit cost of setting poles during 1911 and 1912. This meant piece-meal construction instead of wholesale construction, this difference alone giving to the company "a composite figure" which "results in real injustice to the public." According to Mr. Hayward, the actual cost to the company for these pole lines was at least $3.00 a pole less than the alleged cost of reproduction. By the reproduction method on this single account we have a gain to the company and against the public of $1,339,925.

The reproduction value claimed for underground conduits is $8,308,615. This reproduction value is based on present prices for labor and materials and is based, alleges the brief, "upon items and conditions never met with when the conduit was laid." Thus large sums are claimed by the company for replacing pavements over mains which were laid before the pavement was put down.

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[1] Prepared by Dr. Clyde Lyndon King, University of Pennsylvania.

The value which the company claims for right of way, $1,831,354, the brief describes as "mere speculation" and calls the attention of the commission to the fact that Mr. Hayward of that company acknowledged that this reproduction value was 100 per cent in excess of the actual cost.

Another item in the company's claim for a fair value is $1,577,502 for "contingencies and omission." "This claim," says the brief, "is one which does not represent a single known dollar's worth of actual tangible property." The company claims a going value of $15,385,876 as based upon the estimated cost of reproducing the existing business at the present time and at the present prices within a six year period,—a claim which, alleges the brief, is "unfair and unsupportable."

The brief makes a particularly valuable study for those who are interested in what is actually going on under the surface in valuation methods.

Electric Light Costs in Richmond. The annual report of the Electrical Department of the city of Richmond, Virginia, for the year ending December 31, 1914, estimates that, due to the public ownership and operation of its own electric plant, prices for street lighting in Richmond are "more than 40 per cent below the prevailing market price of electric current used for street lighting in this vicinity." The estimates as to the costs of various forms of service are as follows:

Public buildings, per kilowatt hour	$0.0264
Power for water department, per kilowatt hour	0.01032
All lighting service, per kilowatt hour	0.0229
All light and power service, per kilowatt hour	0.019

A depreciation allowance of 6 per cent has been set aside. The report recommends the laying aside of $47,779.28 annually for depreciation, that is, at the rate of 7.4 per cent on the valuation of December 31, 1914, which was $629,735.44.

Norfolk's Transit Plan.—Norfolk, Virginia, under the guidance of its chamber of commerce, is making a complete study of its transit plan with a view to future transit development. Dr. Delos F. Wilcox has made a special report upon the rates of fare and franchise provisions. His recommendations include "the adoption of a plan for the straightening out of strategic kinks and the ultimate development of main thoroughfares to accommodate street railway and other traffic," and the evolution of some plan for "scaling or tunneling the Chinese wall which the Norfolk and Western railroad has built about the city." This report emphasizes the close relation between the city's plan and its transit efficiency, such as has been so recently emphasized in Chicago's attempt to relocate her terminals and rehabilitate her transportation facilities. Dr. Wilcox also commends a campaign for securing to the city of Norfolk "the power to levy special assessments for benefits and also the power of excess condemnation in connection with public improvements"—powers that other cities may well bestir themselves to secure. The other recommendations have to do with local matters not of such general interest.

The recommendations are based on the assumption that the population increase will be the same for the next four decades as it has been for the past four decades. This will mean a population in 1950 of over one-half million as compared with a population now of 153,386, and a population in 1870 of 46,702. "Norfolk's wonderful harbor, its strategic position on the Atlantic seaboard, its exceptional railroad facilities and its rich agricultural background" are cited as special reasons why the increase may be expected in the future.

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Electricity Rates in Albany, N. Y.[1]—Through the persistent activity of the Albany civic league a new and lower schedule of rates for electricity in that city has been established by the state public service commission of the second district.

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[1] From Dr Horatio M. Pollock.

The reduction from the former schedule ranges from 20 to 40 per cent. When the league began its fight for lower rates in 1910, the maximum price of electricity in the city was 10 cents per k. w. h. All consumers whose monthly bills were less than $100 were obliged to pay the maximum rate. Those whose bills ranged from $100 to $160 paid 8 cents per k. w. h. and larger consumers paid a correspondingly lower rate down to a minimum of 2 cents per k. w. h. The municipal gas company, which has a monopoly of both gas and electric lighting in the city, was paying a dividend of 10 per cent on its capital stock besides adding large sums to its surplus each year. The annual net profit on the fixed capital of the electric division of the company averaged about 25 per cent.

A formal complaint signed by 112 customers of the company was presented to the commission by the league in May, 1910, but the first hearing on the matter was not held until October of that year. After that time hearings were held at long intervals, the commission claiming overwork as an excuse for not bringing the matter to a conclusion. In 1914, three new commissioners were appointed and a determined effort to clear the calendar was made. About the same time the municipal gas company made an attempt to effect a compromise through the Albany chamber of commerce. Certain reductions in the price of electricity were offered in case the complaint should be withdrawn. A committee of the chamber visited the signers of the original complaint telling them that it would cost $30,000 to make a valuation of the company's property and to secure a decision from the public service commission, and that they could hope for no better terms than the company was offering. Part of the signers consented to withdraw but the civic league firmly insisted that the matter be decided by the public service commission. The latter body, to their honor, refused to consider the matter of the withdrawal of the complaint and proceeded to take testimony on the points raised by the complainants. The expert of the league, Prof. Wyant J. Williams of the Rensselaer polytechnic institute, analyzed the situation and presented a new schedule of rates. After his testimony was finished, the company offered a lower schedule than that proposed to the chamber and the commission without making a thorough examination of the company's assets established a new schedule of rates for lighting that was accepted by both the league and the company.

The new schedule provides for step reductions from the maximum as follows:

From 0 to 200 k. w. h.,	8 cents per k. w. h.
Next 300 k. w. h.,	7 cents per k. w. h.
Next 300 k. w. h.,	6 cents per k. w. h.
Next 700 k. w. h.,	5 cents per k. w. h.
Next 1500 k. w. h.,	4 cents per k. w. h.
Next 2000 k. w. h.,	3 cents per k. w. h.
Excess,	2 cents per k. w. h.

A service that formerly cost $100 per month now costs $65 and one that formerly cost $160 now costs $110. On residential lighting a saving of 20 to 25 per cent from the old schedule is effected. The total saving to consumers of electricity in the city is estimated at $84,000 from the first year.

While the new schedule has not been in operation long enough for the effect of the change on the company revenues to be fully known, it is thought that the new business that will come to the company on account of the lowering of the rates will compensate for the smaller margin of profit.

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Municipal Ownership in Kalamazoo.[1]—At the recent election in which the question of municipal ownership was voted upon in Kalamazoo, the various ballots in favor of this principle were carried by an overwhelming majority, as follows:

The first ballot read: "Shall the city of Kalamazoo own and operate a municipal gas plant?" This was carried by a vote of 6,330 for, to 1,942 against.

The second ballot read: "Shall the city council be instructed to submit to the electors a bond issue approximating $975,000 for acquiring a municipal gas plant?"

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[1] From A. M. Todd, president Kalamazoo Municipal Ownership League.

This too carried by more than three to one.

The third ballot read: "Shall Kalamazoo enlarge its municipal electric plant, so as to provide light and power for the citizens of Kalamazoo?" This carried by a vote of 6,429 for, to 1,304 against.

The above is the result of a campaign of education on the part of the Municipal Ownership League of Kalamazoo to give the actual facts and figures regarding the results of municipal ownership in both Europe and America, as found in official authentic reports, certified to by official municipal accountants and other public officials. There were also exhibited photographs showing various public utilities in operation in more than ten foreign countries as well as in the United States, these photographs, over 500 in number, having been taken by the president of the league during an investigation in fourteen foreign countries.

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English Cities During War Times.[1]—English cities are by no means free from the effects of the great conflict staged in Europe. At a conference of the representatives of the Glasgow, Dundee, Aberdeen, Edinburgh, and Leith corporations, it appeared that during the past three months abnormal quantities of coal had been taken from the standing reserve stocks at the various gasworks; that, owing to the restricted and irregular supplies of coal, it would be impossible to maintain the normal manufacture of gas without still further depleting these reserves; and that the inadequate deliveries are due to a diminished output of coal from the pits, the want of adequate transit facilities, and other causes connected with the war.

The problems of finance are important in the present situation. It seems that the central authorities are going to curtail local expenditures, and that public works will be restricted in view of the shortage of laborers. The war does not seem to have seriously affected the collection of the rates: Lewisham reports a collection of 93.67 per cent and Bethnal Green, 92.34 per cent; but with the increase in the rates in all parts of the country, it is not surprising to see that the local bodies are looking about for fresh sources of revenue. At Newcastle, the idea of "municipal trading" is being worked out. The Birmingham city council has made application to the local government board for an order to enable the corporation to raise money by means of bills to an amount not exceeding £2,000,000 instead of the sum of £500,000 previously authorized.

The labor problem is becoming a serious one, too. Men, in large numbers, are being transferred to factories that are devoted to the manufacture of munitions. Birmingham has released 2,500 employes for the colors, and it is estimated that another 1,000 can be spared. Manchester and the other cities are following her example. Provisions are being made so that the posts which the men are leaving will be available to them on their return.

It is noticeable that unemployment seems to be generally prevalent in the cities. In London, the gross total for the period July 1, 1913, to January 30, 1914, was 8,527, as against 8,579 for a similar period in 1912–1913. The average total registration of women for the four weeks that ended January 30, 1915, was 241, as compared with 202 for the four weeks ending December 26, 1914.

Bristol. Owing to the introduction into the city of large numbers of soldiers and others employed in military operations, hospital accommodations in this city have become insufficient. The local government board has been requested to approve a loan of £7,604.

Woolwich is providing for the welfare of the soldiers and sailors in many and varied directions. About 15,000 troops are stationed in the town, and concerts and clubs and other forms of amusement are provided for the entertainment of the troops. The council has resolved to grant to all workers, at present actively employed by the council, who receive not more than 34s. per week, a weekly allowance of 7½ per cent on their wages. This allowance, however, when added to their wages must not bring the total amount to more than

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[1] See vol. iii, p. 302.

35s. per week, exclusive of overtime, and the allowance is to cease automatically with the declaration of peace.

Keighley town council recently granted a salary of £150 to the mayor in order that he might hand it over to the voluntary training corps.

Dewsbury. Free supplies of gas are furnished in this Borough to all houses occupied by the Belgian refugees.

Glasgow is considering a scheme to build cottages for the working classes, of three and four apartments in the suburbs, the cost of which is estimated at £240 and £295 per cottage (inclusive of cost of site, roads, etc.), to be let at £8,10s. per annum respectively. It is proposed to take from the Common Good £30,000, free of interest, to finance the scheme, which explains the low rents in this connection. The corporation employes in several departments have made a claim for an advance of 3s. per week in their wages on the ground of the increased cost of living. The council has undertaken to raise and equip a "Bantam Battalion" of 1,350 men for Kitchener's army. The minimum height is five feet, and the maximum five feet, three inches; chest, all-around, minimum expanded, 34 inches.

Manchester. Applications for an increase of wages have been received from organizations representing practically every department of labor under the corporation. The ground of the applications is the increased cost of living consequent upon the higher prices of food.

St. Pancras. A committee of the council has recommended to the council not to accept goods of German, Austrian, or Hungarian make.

Leeds. During the period of the war the tramway men have substituted a ten-hour day for the previous nine-hour day, owing to the large number of tramway men now serving in the war and the consequent difficulty of handling traffic.

London. A conference was recently held for the purpose of assisting Belgian architects, municipal officials and others to study the principles of town planning in England with a view to assisting them in the replanning of their own country after the war. The county council has agreed to make a grant of 3s. a week or 6d. a day to officers and employers whose salary or wages, including pensionable emoluments, is less than 30s. a week.

The Bradford corporation has resolved to pay a 15 per cent war bonus to the mechanics, smiths, fitters and other workmen in the electricity department. The tramways committee has instructed the general manager to pay full wages to any tramway employes discharged from the army and navy owing to disablement received during active service, until such time as the committee sees fit.

Hull. The council has decided to make a grant of £1,000 towards the equipment of the local volunteer battalion.

The Sheffield tramways committee has decided to grant free tramway tickets for the use of the members of the defense corps who are sworn in as special constables, and are voluntarily engaged in the duties of guarding the barriers on the main roads, the tickets to be used only when the special constables are travelling to and from such special duties.

Women Employed by Cities. It will be interesting to see whether the substitution of women for men in certain posts, as for instance, on the tram cars in the capacity of conductors in the cities of Glasgow, and "policewomen" in Southampton, undertaken as a war emergency measure, will continue to any large extent when the war is over. The women in these services have been supplied with a blue uniform—coat, skirt, and cap, with facings and seem to go about their business in regular fashion.[1]

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Public Safety Notes.[2]—*Police Statistics.* New York has the largest number of policemen (4,258) and the largest number on duty at a time (3,086). Philadelphia, St. Louis and Boston have the largest number of policemen per 10,000 population (19) and the largest number on duty at a time per 10,000 population (6.3). Boston has the largest number per square mile of area (30) and the largest number on duty at a time per square mile of area (10). New Orleans has the largest population per patrolman on duty (2,937) and Cincinnati has the largest number of miles of streets (5.7) and the largest number of miles of improved streets (3.5) for each patrolman on duty. Although these statistics cannot be used in measuring police efficiency they are of interest in connection with the study of the size of police forces. These figures concerning the police force of each of the thirteen largest American cities were compiled by Andrew Linn Bostwick, municipal reference librarian of St. Louis for the *Municipal Journal.*

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[1] Robert M. Jameson, Secretary, Bureau of Municipal Research and Reference, University of Texas.

[2] Prepared by Dr. Leonhard Felix Fuld.

Junior Police in New York. The police captain in command of a congested tenement district in New York has organized about 300 boys of his precinct into a junior police force, of which he is the commissioner. This force is modeled after the regular force, with a captain, a lieutenant, two sergeants and twenty-one patrolmen assigned to each zone into which the precinct is divided. The junior police are assigned to the duty of enforcing the municipal ordinances relating to cleanliness and fire prevention in their own homes and in the zone to which they are assigned and to the duty of suppressing such juvenile street offenses as crap-shooting, swearing, bonfire building, cigarette smoking and sidewalk chalking. The educational value of this junior police force is of more importance than its police value. This movement teaches the boys the principal municipal ordinances, encourages them to explain them to their parents who do not understand our language and influences them to refrain from committing street offenses. It serves to eradicate the traditional enmity existing between the city boy and the policeman and is likely to convert into law-abiding citizens many boys who would otherwise become toughs and gunmen.

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Rhode Island Municipal Legislation.[1]—Permission to hold municipal concerts of a "serious, classical and educational nature" in towns and cities on Sunday was granted by the legislature, likewise the sale of milk, bread, fruit, ice, ice cream soda and mineral waters, non-alcoholic tonics and drugs, tobacco and newspapers was authorized on Sunday.

Under the newsboys act no boy under 12 and no girl under 16 may sell newspapers or other periodicals or exercise any of the usual street trades in cities of over 70,000, and the news vendors may not work after nine o'clock or commence work until after five in the morning.

Providence was given authority to sell or otherwise dispose of any school buildings or property now unsuitable for school purposes.

The percentage of electors necessary for calling town meetings was raised from 5 to 10 per cent of the total number of electors appearing on the last canvassed voting list of a town.

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Public Markets and Market Legislation.[1]—*Public Markets in New York City.* A Report on the Maintenance of Public Markets in the City of New York, by the Bureau of Municipal Investigation and Statistics, in the Comptroller's Office, under date of March, 1915, shows, on the face of it, a net loss to the city of $1,816,148.53 for running the following ten markets: Fulton (discontinued October 12, 1914), Gansevoort, Jefferson, Washington, West Washington, Delancey Street, Tompkins, Wallabout, Flower Market and the 8th Ward Market, not yet in operation. An examination of the statistics, however, indicates that some very astute "padding" on the expense side has been done. Thus $534,459.36 has been put down for "total expenses and other charges" for the 8th Ward Market which is not yet in operation. It would be scarcely fair to debit ten markets with a total annual loss of $1,186,148.53 when $534,459.36 of that amount is due to "total expenses and other charges" on a market not yet in operation. More than this, liberal items are included totalling $890,000 for "loss by exemption from tax."

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[1] From Miss Grace M. Sherwood, Legislative Reference Director, Rhode Island State Library.

[1] Prepared by Dr. Clyde Lyndon King, University of Pennsylvania.

Even assuming that this is a proper charge against the market, as it is, this charge plus the amount just referred to, would alone make a profit rather than a loss for the operation of the ten markets in the city. In addition to this exemption from tax, however, two other items are included under "total expense and other charges," as follows: "4 per cent on assessed valuation, $2,015,804; 4 per cent on cost and preparation of land, $179,650.90. There are not the slightest data offered to show that either of these items bears any relation whatsoever to actual maintenance costs. Yet these two items total $2,195,454.90. Were they disregarded, the ten markets would show a gain of $1,009,306.37 instead of the loss indicated above. The Allied Food Merchants' Association of New York City, through its secretary, at once demanded, on the basis of this report mentioned above, that six of the markets which were being thus run at a loss be abandoned. This is an organization with branches "in every Senatorial district in the State," its function being to look after the interests of the food merchants.

A little over a month after the issuance of this report, private parties invested $1,800,000 in the Cosmopolitan Garden, as a private market on Twenty-third Street, and work was begun on a 95th Street Market to be financed by Vincent Astor for a new $200,000 structure, to be ready for occupancy by October 1. This latter structure is to cover 20,500 square feet and is to be divided into 56 different units. That is, private capitalists are finding markets a field for profitable investments.

The bill introduced in the New York Legislature to allow the administration of New York City to establish a terminal market was recently defeated as was also legislation up before the New York State Legislature, amending the agricultural law requiring commission merchants to file a surety bond with the Secretary of Agriculture of $3,000 or more. This bill was "shelved by the Committee on Agriculture after the National League of Commission Merchants of the United States, and New York Fruit and Produce Trade Association, the Gansevoort Market Business Men's Association and the advisory council of the Wholesale Market District of Greater New York had declared that the measure cast a slur on the honesty and integrity of the small operator."

Such facts as the above are indicative of the underlying forces that are at work in framing or hindering public policies in marketing matters.

German Markets. A recent issue of the New York *Times* states that Berlin, Germany, is proceeding with the erection of a central market which will have a total length of more than 3/5 of a mile and will cost $10,000,000.

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Proportional Representation.[1]—The new charter of St. Louis provides for the election of twenty-eight aldermen at large by the block vote, each voter voting for all. The first election resulted in the capture of the entire membership of the board by the Republicans. This result is regarded by more than one important group in the city as showing that, for the election of a body which should obviously be truly representative of the entire city, the block vote is not satisfactory, and at least two groups are turning to proportional representation as the solution of the difficulty. Leaders in these groups are now engaged in drawing up measures prescribing such a system for the election of aldermen.

Ashtabula, Ohio. In Ashtabula, which last November adopted a city manager charter with a council of seven elected at large by the block vote, the advocates of proportional representation have decided not to put the city to the expense of a special election on their proposed amendment providing the proportional system for the council, but to have the question settled at the regular election next autumn.

Springfield, Mass. At several public meetings held last winter by the Charter Committee of One Hundred of Springfield the proportional system received favorable comment from several speakers, including City Chamberlain Bruère of New York and City Manager Henry M. Waite of

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[1] From C. G. Hoag, Secretary American Proportional Representation League.

Dayton. One of the meetings, addressed by the general secretary of the American Proportional Representation League, was devoted entirely to proportional representation. Of the two alternative charters drawn up by the charter committee one includes provisions for the election of the city council by the proportional system. City Manager Waite remarked he believed the country was coming to proportional representation in these matters, so that the minority could have rights. "Dayton does not have it," he said, "but I favor it and it certainly would answer your objections to the small commission."

Dayton. Reports from Dayton indicate that the criticisms of the workings of the manager plan charter recently adopted there are due not to any defects in the administration but simply to the fact that the only voters represented in the commission of five, which selects and oversees the manager and is the city's only representative body, are the one largest group in the city which framed and passed the new charter. The Socialists, one of the disaffected elements, complain that they have enough votes to deserve at least one representative on the commission, but that the system of voting has shut them out from the city government altogether. Other disaffected elements, not represented on the commission, are stirring up as much trouble as they can for the new government, from various motives. The Socialists and some of the administration group feel that the manager plan could be made truly democratic and the spirit of co-operation developed by the introduction of the proportional system for the election of the commission. If the system were adopted, the number of members might well be increased, it is thought by some, to seven or even to nine.[1]

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Preferential Voting.[2]—The *New Jersey* preferential ballot law has just come successfully through a remarkable legislative and judicial ordeal. Reactionaries of both parties for various reasons massed their strength against it early this year with such vigor that they were able to rush through the lower house a bill repealing the whole measure, and annulling the preferential ballot provisions of the numerous New Jersey cities in which it had come into application. By this time, however, the friends of the measure got into full action and the repealer bill died a most ignominious death in the senate—not a solitary vote being recorded in its behalf, and not a voice raised in its favor. The reactionaries then renewed their fight before the supreme court of the state, asking that the act be declared unconstitutional. Here again they met decisive defeat. The court rendered its decision upholding the validity of the act on April 21.

Seattle, on March 2, in a sort of off-year election, defeated a proposed city charter amendment by a vote of 15,017 to 13,466 which would have abolished the municipal primary and established the preferential ballot in due form. The vote was so close in a light poll that the city council at once voted to resubmit the amendment to the voters so that it will appear on the ballot at the regular city election of next March with a more nearly normal chance of success.

The *Maine* legislature, by a sudden and unexplained reversal of its attitude at the last minute, denied to *Bangor* a commission form charter including the preferential ballot with abolition of primaries in the face of a popular vote in Bangor in favor of the charter 2,454 to 1,983.

Progress of Preferential Voting.—The progress of the Bucklin system to date (June 1, 1915), can be seen from the following list of cities which have already adopted it:

Preferential voting adopted—Primaries supplanted:

Date.	Cities.	Population in 1910.
1909	Grand Junction, Colo.........	7,754*
1910	Spokane, Wash..............	104,402*
1911	Pueblo, Colo................	44,395*†
1912	New Iberia, La..............	7,499*†
1913	Duluth, Minn...............	78,466*
1913	Denver, Colo................	213,381*
1913	Colorado Springs, Colo.......	29,078*

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[1] See the article on the Dayton charter in the April issue by L. D. Upson.

[2] From Prof. Lewis J. Johnson, Harvard University.

Date.	Cities.	Population in 1910.
1913	Portland, Ore	207,214*†
1913	Nashua, N. H	26,005
1913	Cleveland, Ohio	560,663‡
1913	La Grande, Ore	4,843†‖
1913	Fort Collins, Colo	8,210†
1913	St. Petersburg, Fla	4,127
1913	Cadillac, Mich	8,375†‖
1914	Vineland, N. J.	5,282*
1914	Ridgewood, N. J	5,416*
1914	Nutley, N. J	6,009*
1914	Hawthorne, N. J	3,400*
1914	Bordentown, N. J	4,250*
1914	Millville, N. J	12,541*
1914	Long Branch, N. J	13,298*
1914	Phillipsburg, N. J	13,903*
1914	Eleven cities of New Jersey, each under 5,000 population	25,521*
1914	Orange, N. J	29,630*
1914	Atlantic City, N. J	46,150*
1914	Passaic, N. J.	54,773*
1914	Trenton, N. J	96,815*
1914	Jersey City, N. J	267,779*
1915	Hoboken, N. J	70,324*
1915	Portland Water District, Maine (Portland and South Portland)	66,042
		2,025,545
	Preferential voting adopted as adjunct to primary:	
1913	Houston, Tex	78,800*
	Total population	2,104,345

* Commission form charter. Regarding the New Jersey cities, see note.

† Restriction to one vote in the third column for each office to be filled. The provisions in this respect of La Grande and Fort Collins are not quite clear.

‡ Twenty-five hundred signatures required for nomination of mayoralty candidates.

‖ Commission city manager plan.

Nashua, on December 8, 1914 in her first election with the preferential ballot secured gratifying results; and the test of the new system was in important respects the most severe yet made. There were elected a mayor, six aldermen at large, nine aldermen by wards, four members of a board of public works, three fire commissioners, and four members of a board of education. Nominations were by 50 signatures. The total number to be elected in any one ward was 19. The number of nominees for these 19 places in one of the wards was 53. Of the 27 elected in the whole city, only one is looked upon by good judges as bordering on the unfit, and he is so overborne by numbers as to cause no anxiety. Important new talent, hitherto beyond the reach of the citizens, found its way into the city service in this election. It would seem that if the Bucklin system can go through such a complicated election as that of Nashua with credit its case is pretty secure.

II. POLITICS[1]

Chicago Mayoralty Election.[2]—William Hale Thompson was elected mayor of Chicago on April 6 by a plurality of 49,977 in a total vote of 669,688, or 87 per cent of the registered voters (768,906). The election of Mayor Thompson has been regarded as a partisan victory by Republicans, and as such has received country-wide attention. There is no doubt that national party politics played their part; but race and religious issues had their share. The first formal utterance of the mayor-elect was, "The crooks had better move out of Chicago before I am inaugurated. This town will be cleared of the criminals so completely before the new administration is in power many weeks that the whole world will for once understand that Chicago is a safe place to come to." His second observation was: "Chicago has spoken to the nation in this overwhelming vote given the Republican candidates to-day. It means that Illinois and the middle west will swing into the Republican column. The country can get ready for a return of prosperity."

In commenting on the election a thoughtful correspondent has this to say:

"The blaring of trumpets that took the place of a discussion of local issues during the mayoralty campaign has not yet ceased. The new administration has been giving out a great many interviews, some of which seem to me have not been necessary in view of the fact that the campaign is over. If the new administration delivers 50 per cent of its promises, it will make a notable record. Just what sort of an administration we will have is difficult to predict. Some people seem to think that national prosperity is already at hand as the result of the Chicago election and others are fearful that there will be more hot air and good intentions during the next four years than will be consistent with real civic achievement.

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[1] Except as otherwise indicated these notes were prepared by Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

[2] See article by Miss Abbott, page 437.

"The cabinet appointments are in several respects, at least, very disappointing. They do not hold out the promise of effective and disinterested administration of the city's affairs. The newspapers, however, so far have refrained from criticising any of these appointments, probably out of their desire to give Mayor Thompson every chance to make good. Ordinarily some of the appointments that were made would have been severely criticised and there is a good deal of an under current of criticism of some of the appointments. It doesn't seem to me that any one appointment stands out as a notable one. Some are good, more are average and some are poor.

"The town is still experiencing the enthusiasm for Thompson that culminated in his overwhelming election. No mayor ever went into the office in Chicago with such a plurality or with such hearty good will behind him. There is a disposition to feel now that the mayor ought to get down to hard pan and let his deeds speak for him."

In his inaugural address the mayor declared: "The fact is the voters emphatically expressed their dissatisfaction with the economic conditions existing under the present national administration and protested as vehemently as they could against the legislation enacted at Washington which has been followed by hard times. The results of this contest are undoubtedly a forecast of the people's verdict to be rendered at the polls in the next general election."

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The Chicago Councilmanic Election.—The Municipal voters' league conducted its twentieth annual campaign and won, what is by many regarded, as its most sweeping victory. Thirty of the candidates which it endorsed were elected, 8 of its candidates defeated, and only 4 were chosen against its protest. The liquor issue was a prominent one in many of the ward contests. Dr. Graham Taylor, in an article on "Civic significance of the Chicago election" in *The Survey*, declared as follows: "In the interest of its sole tocsin, 'personal liberty,' the United societies published a list of candidates whom it endorsed, or who were 'acceptable.' Of the 27 it endorsed, 17 were defeated and 10 were elected. Of the 22 who were acceptable, 13 were defeated and 9 elected. Of the 49 preferred by the United societies, including most of the very worst candidates and a few better ones, 30 were defeated and 19 elected. And yet the prohibition candidate for mayor received a total of only 3,590 votes, of which 1,888 were cast by men and 1,702 by women."

So far as appearances are concerned, Chicago is to have the best city council it has had for a number of years. Some able men were returned, including Charles E. Merriam, of the seventh ward, who, in the words of a correspondent, "undoubtedly during his term in the council has outranked all the other members in critical and constructive ability." In addition to the old men returned a number of new men of first-rate ability have been elected, including Alexander A. McCormick, who, during 1913 and 1914, was the most efficient president of the board of county commissioners. Other new men of recognized standing and ability are Robert M. Buck of the thirty-third ward and John C. Kennedy, socialist, of the twenty-seventh ward. In addition to the men mentioned there have been a number of instances of improvement in the personnel, older men of doubtful or worse records being replaced by newer men of ability and promise. The same correspondent says, "I know in a general way that the Municipal voters' league is very well satisfied with the results of the election and had a very high batting average so far as the election of men recommended or approved by it is concerned."

The Springfield Election.[1]—Springfield, the largest of the Illinois cities under commission government, recently elected a new commission, following a strenuous campaign. In the primary, February 23, there were five candidates for nomination as mayor-commissioner, and 32 who sought nomination as commissioners, a marked decrease in the number of candidates as compared with the first primary election in 1911, when there were 110 candidates. A total vote of 16,711 was cast for the candidates for mayor-commissioner, an especially large primary vote. About one-third of these was cast by women. All the members of the former commission, except the commissioner of public health and safety, who was not a candidate, were nominated for re-election.

In the contest for nomination and in the final election the principal issue was the policy of municipal ownership, with reference to installing an electric generator in connection with the city waterworks plant, to compete with the private utilities company in supplying electricity to domestic consumers. The movement has been due to a belief that the rates for electricity are unreasonably high, and has been led by Willis J. Spaulding, commissioner of public property, who has made important improvements in the municipal water plant during his administration. One ticket at the final election was headed by Commissioner Spaulding and stood squarely in favor of the policy of municipal ownership. The other ticket was made up of candidates who were opposed to the installation of the proposed electric generator or who were more or less indifferent on the matter.

The result of this alignment was a bitter fight between the public utilities interests and those who were in favor of Commissioner Spaulding's policy, in which personalities, partisan politics and other irrelevant issues played an aggressive part. Perhaps the most noticeable feature of the contest was the attempt to introduce partisan politics in violation of the commission government law. Urgent appeals were made by a partisan journal for members of the party to concentrate their votes so as to elect the entire commission. This appeal was not acquiesced in by the real leaders of the party, but the outcome of the election was materially affected by its introduction.

Neither of the contending sides won a clear-cut victory. Those who favored a policy of municipal ownership were successful in electing the mayor by a small majority of 55 votes and Commissioner Spaulding; the "public utilities" ticket elected two commissioners, while a former commissioner, who refused to join either of the tickets, received the highest number of votes cast for any of the candidates.

What action the new commission will take on the question of the municipal ownership of the electric lighting plant it is impossible to predict. The voters of the city have expressed themselves at a referendum election as being in favor of purchasing an electric generator; and the commissioners state that they will carry out the popular will; but matters have been complicated by the filing of an injunction suit by the public utilities interests to restrain the city from purchasing the proposed generator.

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California Municipal Politics.—On April 20, *San Francisco* voted on the proposition to buy the property of the Spring Valley Water Company for $34,500,000. The campaign over the project was a warm one, especially during the last three weeks, and the total number of votes polled was 73,356. Of this number 39,955 were for the project, but a two-thirds vote was required to carry it, so the proposition failed. The opposition was composed of very diverse elements. The bulk of the strength lay in the labor party, the labor leaders making a very active fight against the purchase. Joined to the labor party were certain financial and newspaper interests controlled by men having strong personal hostility to the water corporation, and by others who believed that the price was much too high, and uncompromising municipal ownership advocates who would not consent under any circumstances to the city's buying the property of a private corporation. Their position was that the city should spend all its energies in bringing in a supply of mountain water from the Hetch Hetchy Valley.

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[1] From A. C. Hanford, University of Illinois.

The politicians are busy laying plans for the autumn election, when a new mayor, half the board of supervisors and a number of administrative officers are to be chosen. There are two labor candidates, former Mayor P. H. McCarthy and A. J. Gallagher, now a member of the board of supervisors, who led the fight against the Spring Valley purchase. McCarthy is the head of the building trades council, and Gallagher has just retired from the presidency of the San Francisco labor council, which is nominally at least the representative body of organized labor. Former Mayor Schmitz, who was convicted of extortion in the graft trials and removed from office, and is still under numerous indictments for bribe-taking, has announced himself as a candidate, although he has not done anything else since that action. It is generally expected that Mayor Rolph will be a candidate for re-election, although he has not so far made any anouncement to that effect. The non-partisan primary occurs on the last Monday in September.

Across the Bay at the *Berkeley* primary there were three mayoralty candidates, the present incumbent, Charles D. Heywood, J. Stitt Wilson, and the Socialist candidate, William S. Irving. The latter two survived the fire of the primaries, and at the finals Irving won by a vote of 4,517 to 3,708. The mayor-elect, S. C. Irving, a millionaire capitalist, defeated J. Stitt Wilson, Socialist and former-mayor, after a campaign on the issues of capitalism versus socialism, and private regulated ownership versus municipal ownership of public utilities, the victor holding to the first mentioned principle in each case. This might augur a program of reaction. On the other hand, one elected councilman, a successful merchant, was elected on a "business" platform, while the other, a civil engineer, who admitted that he was seeking the commissionership of public works, was elected after consistently urging "a trained man for the job, such as has been chosen to run things in Dayton and other business-manager cities."

Oakland held a primary election April 20, and although the campaign appeared to be very spirited, it evidently did not interest the majority of Oakland citizens, for only about 35,000 votes were cast out of 82,000 registered. John L. Davie got the majority of the votes for mayor, with Frank W. Bilger running second at about half Davie's vote. Bilger was the heir of the present administration in Oakland, while Davie was backed by the "antis," making his campaign on the anti-corporation, anti-administration platform. He was mayor of the city a good many years ago on a similar platform, but was not considered to be particularly successful. He was successful in the final election by a vote of 25,050 to 17,887.

An effort to recall two of the commissioners "fizzled out" on a technicality. The city clerk certified that out of all the petitions filed, and they included 8,097 signatures, all but two were illegally signed. The Oakland law provides that every signer to a recall petition must sign twice, once following the petition for recall and once to the affidavit affirming the legality of the signatures. In all but the two petitions above referred to the first signature was omitted.

Los Angeles. The political situation in this city is far from satisfactory. A California correspondent who is deeply interested in all forward movements writes, "Down in Los Angeles they have a very similar campaign going on. As a resident of Los Angeles writes me, they have a 'lot of boobs running for office.' The progressive elements that a few years ago were in control in Los Angeles have been split into bitterly hostile camps through personal animosities, and the stand-pat elements are in very much the same condition. Neither side has been able to unite on any strong man, so men of small capacity have come to the front and, whoever wins, the city appears to be the loser."

As a result of the recent primary, former chief of police Sebastian, who received about one third of the vote cast for the office of mayor, led his closest competitor, Frederick, J. Whiffen, president of the city council, by 12,000 votes. The third man in the race received about 11,000 votes. The rest of the vote was distributed among a considerable list of the "also ran" class. A significant fact in the campaign was the falling off in the Socialist vote, their candidate receiving about 7,000 votes, or 10 per cent of the total vote, whereas in former elections the Socialist vote has run as high as 30 and 40 per cent. In the opinion of Meyer Lissner, the fact that the Los Angeles *Record*, which heretofore has catered to the Socialist constituency and supported the Socialist nominees, in this election threw the bulk of its influence in favor of Sebastian, had much to do with the Socialist decline, although there is considerable disintegration in the forces that have heretofore lined up for the Socialist nominees. Mr. Lissner, in writing on the subject, said, "The election was one of the most peculiar ever held in a city which has achieved some reputation for freak voting contests. The weather was inclement and there was marked indifference on the part of the electorate, so that the vote cast was comparatively light, less than 70,000 being polled out of a registration of 200,000."

The final contest on June 4 was between Sebastian, who at the time of the primaries was on trial for charges involving improper conduct toward a young woman, and has since been acquitted, and Whiffen. The result of the general election was that Sebastian was elected by a majority of about 5,000.

At the primary, city attorney Albert Lee Stephens, city auditor John S. Meyers and city assessor Walter Mallard received a majority of all the votes cast and were therefore re-elected. None of these officials made any vigorous campaign for re-election or had any organization worth mentioning. In the words of Mr. Lissner, "The vote of confidence given them indicates that the people are quite competent to pass on the merits of tried and true public officials without the necessity of building up expensive intensive organizations in their behalf." The incumbent members of the city council who were standing for re-election were all renominated and Los Angeles gives evidence of its complete conversion to nonpartisanship, giving its highest vote to Councilman Beluski, a Democrat, Councilman Wheeler, a Socialist, and Councilman Conwell, a Progressive-Republican.

At the election on June 4, a board of freeholders to draft a new charter was chosen.

To quote the correspondent already referred to, "It seems to me that from the above facts and figures we may draw the conclusion that the people of the California cities are somewhat discouraged at the lack of strong leadership in any forward direction. In state affairs they appear to be pretty well satisfied, as they rallied overwhelmingly behind Governor Johnson. As they did not find that same vigorous leadership in municipal affairs, the majority are not coming out at the municipal elections."

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Denver.[1]—When Judge Lindsey wrote his book, "The Beast and the Jungle," he made a notable contribution to the literature which deals with the relations of politics and business as it has obtained in many American municipalities. There was a considerable and influential body of business men in Denver, however, who were never able to judge this book by its larger and more significant values. They have never forgiven their fellow townsman for his exposé of local conditions which, they thought, made their city appear discreditable in the eyes of the nations. Because they failed to appreciate that Denver was not a sinner above others in this matter, these men have considered his book in the nature of a personal affront, and have been biding the time when its writer should get his punishment. That time almost came when the recent legislature was elected and convened. From the first, standing out prominently in its proposed legislation, were certain measures providing for the abolition of the juvenile court and the turning of its work over to the district court. On the face of the movement there was no attack upon Judge Lindsey, yet every one was confident that back of the proposal was a well laid plan to get rid of the "Kids' Judge" and even up the score. At the same time few of the ordinary citizens took the matter seriously, believing it was the work of a few men who wished to show their personal animus, but who would not get enough support to push the matter to any length. When one of the representatives, a Mr. Howland of Denver, was suddenly accused of receiving money, presumably to quash his anti-cigarette bill, then, in a flash, the gravity of the Lindsey matter was silhouetted before the state by the admission of Howland that he had received money from one of the personal enemies of the judge, to care for certain necessary expenses incident to the campaign for the abolition of the juvenile court. This incident revealed the seriousness of the fight against the judge and from that time there was an open conflict. Every one recognized that a vote for the bill was a vote to get rid of the whole personnel of the court, and its advocates frankly admitted as much. The measure went through its various readings and toward the close of the session was passed by both houses and one of the best known children's courts in the world was about to be abolished, unless the governor should save it by his veto. The advocates of the bill, however, had not laid their plans wisely, for they failed to provide for several contingencies which were bound to arise if their proposed legislation prevailed. Chief among these was that, if the work of this court were to be given over to the district court, provision should be made for the enlargement of that court so that it could handle the extra work which the consolidation would require. The district judges were already overcrowded and were wholly unprepared to assume the duties of the juvenile court. This failure was assigned by the governor as one of the reasons why he vetoed the bill. Even though a domestic relations court, as a part of the district court, were desirable, yet the situation created by the legislature, left no other course open to the chief executive. Another good reason why he should have done as he did was that the juvenile court belonged to the city and county of Denver and that the judge was elected by its people and the legislature was acting improperly when it proposed to take the whole matter out of the hands of the people to whom the court belonged and who elected its judge.

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[1] Prepared by the Rev. David H. Fouse, pastor of the First Reformed Church, Denver, and former president of the City Federation.

Co-incident with what was going on at the state house, were two other investigations touching certain attacks upon Judge Lindsey which assailed his personal character and the conduct of his court. Charges were made that male offenders against young girls were too leniently dealt with, and that too few convictions were secured. So open and persistent are these claims, especially on the part of Dr. Mary Elizabeth Bates, an osteopathic physician, and several others, that the matter finally claimed the attention of the grand jury. Numerous witnesses were called and the principals in the controversy were permitted to present whatever evidence they had and a thorough-going investigation was made. When the jury returned its findings, the judge was acquitted of the charges and those who made the accusations were openly rebuked, a rather unusual proceeding.

Some months previous to these events, Frank L. Rose, who seems to be little known in Denver, made most sensational charges against the moral integrity of Judge Lindsey before the Methodist preachers meeting. This resulted in the appointment by that body of a committee to investigate the charges. After weeks of painstaking work, during which time every rumor was run down and every possible means of information was consulted, this committee reported that Mr. Rose's charges were based upon the affidavits of two boys in the state industrial school one of whom admitted during the investigation, that he had never even seen the judge, and that he had made the affidavit against him because he thought he was the one who had sent him to the school. Later Mr. Rose wrote a letter to this committee, withdrawing the charges, which letter was laid before the grand jury. The report closed with the statement: "We do not hold that no mistakes are made in the juvenile court: all men are liable to error: but that the court discriminates against young girls who have been wronged, or that it is conducted in such a manner as to encourage immorality in the community, we believe to be entirely false. We are fully convinced that the persistent and bitter agitation against the Denver juvenile court which has been carried on for some time past, is unreasonable and unjust, and that the extreme methods employed recently to blacken the reputations of the judge of this court are a menace to the community and deserve the severest condemnation." [1]

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Municipal Election at Dallas, Texas.—The mayoralty contest this year was most interesting and resulted in the election of the Citizens' ticket over the People's ticket, the question of national politics not entering directly into the contest. The successful candidate for mayor was Henry D. Lindsley, who for many years has been a student of municipal affairs and actively interested in the work of the National Municipal League. He has written considerably on the subject and has been a close student of municipal administration, both at home and abroad.

In the words of one correspondent: "Above every other man in Dallas, I believe Mr. Lindsley ranks as being an expert executive interested in public affairs." Otto H. Lang, a well-known architect and engineer who has been supervising the construction of the buildings which make the Dallas sky line, and who is acquainted with German methods of paving and management of public buildings, was elected commissioner of streets and public property. Robert L. Winthry, who was elected to be commissioner of police and fire, has risen from the rank of constable and has served as chief of police. He is considered an expert in the department to which he has been elected. Manning D. Shannon, the successful candidate for commissioner of finance and revenue, has served successfully as chairman of a large number of philanthropic and public movements, and is recognized throughout Dallas as being an appropriate man for the position. A. C. Cason, who was elected commissioner of water works, was a business man. His opponent claimed at first to be a hydraulic engineer, but it developed later in the campaign that he was a stationery man. Notwithstanding the fact of Mr. Cason's business ability and his high rating, his opponent led the opposing ticket largely because of his "expert" claim. In the words of the correspondent already mentioned, "It has been repeatedly stated that the city of Dallas has secured the services of men for the sum of $16,000 which no other corporations could secure for less than $100,000."

The campaign was hotly contested. There was a considerable amount of personal abuse, especially of Mr. Lindsley, an attempt being made to array class against class, with the accompanying appeals to religious prejudice and race hatred. Again quoting from our correspondent, "I rather think the result of the election, while so thoroughly desirable from the standpoint of men, was the stamp of the disapproval of the voters of Dallas of the old-time-before-the-commission-form-of-government-went-in methods. We received encouragement during the campaign from all over Texas and were flooded with telegrams of congratulation. The people of this section of the state feel the force of the issues involved. My prediction is that during the next few years there will be a very great improvement in municipal government in northern Texas, and in the place of having city managers in two small towns we will have twenty, with one in Dallas and one in Fort Worth, her sister city."

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[1] A thoughtful Colorado correspondent (not a resident of Denver) writes: "It seems to me that the situation is fairly clear. Judge Lindsey has made himself very obnoxious to the state of Colorado by his activities extraneous to his court duties. This was especially the case in connection with his biased report in the east in connection with the strike situation in Colorado. The legislature undertook to 'get' Lindsey by the abolition of his court, a procedure which I think has met with very general condemnation in progressive social reform. Governor Carlson has vetoed the bill from the very sensible ground that if the people of Denver do not want Lindsey as judge of the Juvenile Court, the thing for them to do is to elect somebody else, and that it is Denver's business and not that of the legislature. Howland was mixed up in the affair and was expelled from the legislature on the grounds of confessed perjury, without the legislature going into the merits of his connection with the Lindsey affair."

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The San Antonio Mayoralty.—Mayor Clinton G. Brown of San Antonio has been re-elected by a plurality of more than 5,000 over Mr. Shook, the candidate of the local Municipal League. As far as we can discover from local correspondents the reason for postponing the introduction of the commission form of government when the matter of a change of government was voted on in January, 1914, until the next election was the fear that the opponents of Mayor Brown might succeed in clouding the issue and injecting into the question of commission government the personality of the candidates for commissioners. The present election was preceded by a very bitter fight in which the partisans of Shook claimed that the administration represented by Brown and the aldermen was not giving them a fair show in the election. The opposition, known as the Municipal league of San Antonio, called upon the governor to send state agents in the shape of rangers to insure fair play at the polls. Of course, this gave the administration a fine opportunity to cry "home rule," and to brand the opposition as cowards and unpatriotic men towards their city. The governor refused to interfere in the matter, naively admitting that he had friends on both sides of the controversy and could not, therefore, take a hand. The election was a vindication for Brown, who received about 8,000 votes out of a total of 13,000 cast. One of the active opponents of Mayor Brown, according to our correspondent, states that most of the former Callahan support, (that is to say the Mexican vote), seems to have been on his side, but obviously that statement must be taken with a grain of salt. "That is about all I can state with regard to the situation in San Antonio, though I may add that in the matter of physical improvements the city has made enormous advances during Brown's administration."

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The Re-Election of the Mayor of Austin, Texas.—On March 22, A. P. Wooldridge, who has been mayor of Austin for six years, was renominated by the largest majority he had ever received, the vote being almost exactly twice the vote of his opponent. Subsequently at the general election he was chosen without opposition, his opponent having withdrawn. It is believed that Mayor Wooldridge's success is due to the fact that during the six years of service he has done a great deal in the way of physical betterment and social improvement of the city, and has stood for continued progress all along the line. His idea of progress does not include merely the idea of street paving, parks and playgrounds, but includes the immediate improvement of the conditions of the people along sanitary and humanitarian lines. He also stood for higher ideals in the community, abolishing the segregated vice district. Although tolerant of the privileges of the people, the extreme saloon element was opposed to him, as they wanted a wider open town than he favored. After the election the mayor expressed his conclusion that "The man who stands for the best things in American municipal life and the man who is courageous in asserting the things for which he stands is the man who is the most likely to succeed."

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Hoboken's Political Commission.—The Democratic machine elected four of its candidates, although the second choice man, Gustav Bach, was endorsed by the New government league as well as by "the organization." Martin Cooke, the sitting mayor, who was on the commission government side and was defeated by Harry L. Schmulling, one of the present minority councilmen, applied for a recount, but the result was not altered.

The city treasurer, who goes out of office as a result of the adoption of commission government, applied to the supreme court for a writ of certiorari to determine the legality of the election at which the Walsh Act was adopted, the question hinging upon the wording of the ballots that were used. The night before election an amendment was passed by the legislature for the purpose of clarifying that part of the original act relating to the number of votes necessary for its adoption and in this amendment the title of the act was not worded in the same manner as it was originally and as it appeared on the ballots that were used. The suit was subsequently withdrawn.

It is a matter of regret that the preferential ballot was not used to the fullest extent. The Democratic organization concentrated its efforts towards the first choice. The new government league which had the support of the Republican organization stood behind nine candidates, advocating first and second choice. Had the voters used the ballot and voted for the candidates whom they wished to support, it is believed that the result would have been different. There is a general feeling of dissatisfaction with the preferential ballot and there seems to be a strong sentiment in favor of going back to the old system. The *Journal*, which has heretofore favored the plan, has concluded that it is useless.

The commissioners are acting on the old principle of selecting for appointment only those who supported "the organization" and therefore are not apparently carrying out fully the principles of the commission idea. At the same time the commission promises to give efficient and economical government, and say they will welcome suggestions and advice, admitting that they do not know it all.

The commissioners of education, who were not affected by the adoption of the commission government act, nevertheless resigned so as to permit the mayor to appoint men of his own choice. There are nine members and the mayor re-appointed two of the old board, the other seven being new men.

Kansas City, Kansas, Mayoralty Election.—C. W. Green of Kansas City, Kansas, has been re-elected to the mayoralty of that city against the opposition of powerful public utility interests. The mayor waged an uncompromising fight for municipal ownership of public utilities and in behalf of the proposition that every city should be granted the right to frame its own charter by local self-government, and to exercise thereunder all powers of local government not denied by the constitution or the criminal laws of the state, instead of having only such powers of local government as are granted expressly or impliedly by the legislature.

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Terre Haute's Mayor Impeached.—Donn M. Roberts, the mayor of Terre Haute, Indiana, recently found guilty with 27 other officeholders of that city of conspiracy to corrupt the election of November 4, 1913, was impeached by the city council and removed from office. Although Roberts is in the federal prison at Leavenworth serving a six-year sentence, he continued to serve in the office of mayor until his impeachment.

⁂

Illinois Commission Elections.—One of the advisory editors of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW writes that he noted that in most of the commission-governed cities where the first commission had been a distinct success, most of the former commissioners had been re-elected. This was the case in Elgin, Ottawa and Moline. Most of the old commissioners were also re-elected in Decatur, where there had been a distinct improvement in municipal conditions, although the results were not altogether satisfactory.

⁂

Socialist Mayor Re-Elected.—Henry Stolze, Jr., the Socialist mayor of Manitowoc, Wisconsin, was re-elected for the fourth time on April 7.

Milwaukee Election.—The school board and judges were elected on April 6. Four out of five Socialists were elected over a non-partisan line. For five judgeships, over which there was a contest between the Socialists and non-partisans, the Socialists elected one and the non-partisans four.

III. JUDICIAL DECISIONS

Lowest Bidder and Award of Contract.—In *Leitz vs. New Orleans*[1] the lowest bidder for a contract was unable to give satisfactory security, as required by the city charter. The court held that the city was thereupon at liberty to award the contract without re-advertisement to the next lowest bidder.

✤

City Streets and County Roads.—The expansion of cities often leads to somewhat confusing questions as to the status of former county roads included in the corporate limits. The Kentucky court of appeals, in *Letcher County vs. Whitesburg*,[2] held that a public road, which was within the corporate limits of the town, must be considered in the position of a city street, and that accordingly it becomes the duty of the city to maintain and repair the same.

✤

Public Wharf a Highway.—The status of a public wharf as to the right of the public to use it as a highway is a matter which seems to give rise to some perplexity. In *Hafner Mfg. Co. vs. City of St. Louis*,[3] the Missouri supreme court held that such a wharf, being connected with public streets and in a sense an extension of a street, must be construed as a "public highway," that the public have the same right of common use in it as in the street proper, and that the rights of the city and its duties regarding it are governed by the general laws governing public highways.

✤

Municipal Duty Concerning Animals.—In *Tanner vs. Culpepper Construction Co. et al.*[4] the Virginia supreme court of appeals held that a municipal corporation or contractor working under it cannot be held liable for injuries resulting from frightening of a horse at a steam roller, the steam roller being used by the city or contractor in the improvement of streets, and having been placed on one side of the street during the course of its improvement. The court made the reservation, however, that the roller be not left at the side of the street an unreasonable time.

✤

City Liability for Mob Violence.—The Kansas supreme court, in *Blakeman vs. City of Wichita*,[1] had before it a unique question. Plaintiff while a prisoner in the city jail had been severely beaten and injured by other prisoners. He sued the city under a statute making cities liable for injuries resulting from mob violence. The court overruled the city's defense to the effect that prisoners not being voluntarily in jail could not be considered to constitute a mob. It held that, the primary purpose for which they were assembled being immaterial, the fact that they had formed and executed the unlawful purpose brought the cause of action within the statute.

✤

Street Cars and Zones of Safety.—Minnesota General Statutes, 1913 (Sec. 2632), require operators of motor vehicles to slow down in approaching or passing a street car when the latter has been stopped to take on or let off passengers. In *Johnson vs. Young*[2] the supreme court of that state held that this provision operated to create a zone of safety around the entrance of such car by placing the burden of the lookout upon the driver of the motor vehicle. Under this interpretation it was held that a person alighting from a standing street car cannot be charged with contributory negligence for failing to keep a lookout for automobiles. The burden is placed strictly on the driver of the vehicle.

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[1] 67 S. 339.

[2] 172 S. W. 1041.

[3] 172 S. W. 28.

[4] 83 S. E. 1052.

[1] 144 Pac. 816.

[2] 149 N. W. 940.

*

Parol Contract of Municipality.—A provision often found in city charters is to the effect that no contract made by a city official shall be deemed to be binding on the municipality unless executed in writing with certain prescribed formalities. The city of Wagoner, which has a provision to this effect in its charter, was sued by one McKinney on a parol contract alleged to have been entered into by one of the city commissioners and on which the city had acted for some time with the acquiescence of the other commissioners. The Oklahoma[1] supreme court held that acquiescence by the commissioners and partial performance of the contract could not be considered as waiving the charter limitation and that the contract, therefore, could not be considered binding on the city. Any other interpretation would have rendered nugatory this very salutary limitation on the city's contractual power and would have had possibilities of distressing complications.

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Damages in Changing Grade.—The claim of an abutting property owner for damages caused in making an improvement on a public street was before the New York court of appeals in *McCabe vs. City of New York.*[2] The claim was based on the ground that the improvement caused a taking of private property, contrary to the constitutional limitation. The court held, however, that such an improvement being within the power of the city, could not be so construed, though the result might be that the value of particular property was decreased, and that the abutting owner had no remedy outside of that provided by statute.

In *Schuss et ux. vs. City of Chehalis,*[1] the Washington supreme court rejected the claim of an abutting property owner for damages caused by the city removing a lateral support on making an original street grade, on the basis that the grading was wholly within the limits of the street and that it was not established that the work was negligently done.

*

Control of Streets.—The Illinois supreme court in *People vs. Marshall Field & Co.,*[2] had to consider the conflict of municipal and state authority over streets and the use to which they may be put. The court found that, municipal powers being derived strictly from the legislature, the authority of the municipality must be construed as subject to that of the legislature, and the jurisdiction of the state was accordingly upheld. The streets of the city under the decision are at the same time state highways, and come under the same primary and paramount control of the legislature as other state highways. The court found that the legislature is under no limitation as to the use to which streets may be devoted; that a city, on the other hand, may only control and improve streets in such manner and at such time as the public necessities may require, and cannot divert them to other uses by granting them to individuals or corporations in a way to interfere with the duty of preparing them for public use or using them according to the public necessities. The court found in the case before it, however, that where tunnels were constructed beneath the surface of the street in such a way as to connect abutting property on both sides of the street, the tunnels being open to the public in the ordinary hours of business as a "passage way," and the right to maintain the tunnels, being subject to revocation by the city at any time, the public rights in the street were sufficiently preserved.

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[1] 144 Pac. 1071.

[2] 107 N. E. 1049.

[1] 144 Pac. 916.

[2] 107 N. E. 864.

IV. MISCELLANEOUS

Local Option Results.—*Massachusetts.* Reports of the town meeting elections indicate an "even break" in the license results. No-license forces were defeated in Middletown, where a very determined fight was waged. The vote was 143 in favor of license and against 103. Leominster voted for license for the first time in 29 years. *Minnesota.* Moorhead is a "wet" town with a "dry" mayor as a result of its recent election. The "dry" forces made considerable gains in the smaller towns of the state. Eighty-two "wet" towns voted to retain their license and 60 "dry" towns will remain "dry"; 30 "wet" towns voted "dry," however, while only 4 "dry" towns changed to the license column. *Vermont.* No-license gains are reported as a result of the spring local option elections. Prohibition gained four cities, thus leaving 17 towns and cities entitled to grant liquor licenses in Vermont. Montpelier voted "dry" by seven votes. Bennington changed from the no-license to the license column, and Rutland remained in the license column by the narrow margin of three votes. In 1903, when the present local option law went into effect, 90 towns and cities voted for license. *Illinois.* As a result of the April elections three counties were added to the "dry" column, making 55 out of 102 counties "dry." About one hundred saloons will be put out of business. Centralia, "wet" for sixty years, voted "dry" by a majority of 300. Livingston County has only one "wet" town and Scranton Township, the only "wet" spot in Champaign County, was voted "dry" by the women's vote. Pontiac went "dry," and nine saloons will have to close their doors. Out of 26 local option elections held on April 20, the "drys" and "wets" each won in 13 localities. Litchfield voted "dry" by a majority of 600. *Michigan.* Out of the 16 counties voting on local option, the "drys" won in 12 counties. Alger and Oakland counties, which were first credited to the "drys," have on an official recount been placed in the "wet" column. About three hundred saloons will be put out of business. *New Jersey.* That the commission form of government is not necessarily inimical to the liberal interests is shown by the fact that Beverley voted "wet" in the first initiative and referendum election on the excise issue held under the commission form of government in a New Jersey municipality. The "wets" had a majority of 41 in a total of 551 votes. *New York.* The six towns in Suffolk County, L. I., voting on the license question in April gave good majorities for license. Approximately one hundred and fifty towns have voted on the license question in this state in the last three months, and out of this whole number there has only been a net loss of seven towns for the "wets." *Ohio.* Wellston has voted "wet" after being "dry" for six years. Magnetic Springs and Ravenna voted "dry" in the March elections. The determining element in the victory for the "drys" was the work of Father Gardner, who lined up his parishioners in opposition to the saloons. London went "wet" by a majority of 171 votes. *South Dakota.* Fifteen cities changed from the "wet" to the "dry" column in the recent elections, while only one town changed from "dry" to "wet." Mitchell, Madison, Rapid City, Custer, Milbank, Platte, Farmer and Leola were the important towns voting "dry." *Wisconsin.* The no-license advocates made substantial gains in the April elections; 150 saloons will be affected by the "dry" victory. A score of small cities and towns were added to the "dry" column. Only four or five places that have been "dry" the past year voted "wet." No large places switched from the "dry" to the "wet" column. In the list of "dry" gains are such important places as Sparta, Bayfield, Ladysmith, Oostburg and Pardeeville.

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Local Option in Texas.—Recent decisions in cases involving the Allison Act, which aims to prohibit the transportation of intoxicating liquors from "wet" territory into "dry" in the state of Texas, have held that the carrying of liquors from "wet" into "dry" territory by a citizen of the latter for his own use or as agent for another for that other's own use is not a violation of the Allison Act. In the newspapers, these decisions were widely misreported as declaring the Act unconstitutional. Such, however, was not the tenor of either decision, the point in question in each case being not the constitutionality of the Act but the applicability of the Act to the cases in court. Said Judge Harper, ". . . I do not agree that the Allison Law, or any of its provisions, are unconstitutional, but think, properly construed, it is valid, and prohibits the transportation, shipment, carriage, and delivery of intoxicating liquors in prohibition territory for illegal sale, or any other illegal purpose." Territory is voted "wet" or "dry" in Texas by counties, and the decisions affect municipalities only in so far as the municipalities are situated in "dry" counties.[1]

✤

Student Movement for Municipal Instruction.[2]—The undergraduates of Rutgers College (New Brunswick, N. J.) are advocating the establishment of a course in municipal government. No such course is at present given at Rutgers, though there is a department of political science and a good curriculum in constitutional government. *The Targum*, the student weekly, under date of April 14, makes a strong editorial plea for a municipal course, suggests the establishment of a bureau of municipal research, and points out the desirability of eventually securing a traveling-fellowship fund that will make possible original research of value in this field of political science.

✤

Neighborhood Centers.—This year's prize competition of the Chicago City Club was devoted to the subject of a neighborhood center, the object being to develop in graphic form the possibilities of enhancing the neighborhood life of cities by better arranged grounds and buildings. The declared purpose is to develop ideas and general principles, the widest latitude being given to contributors in the selection of the site for the center both as to character of environment and geographical location. As a preliminary to the competition, the civic secretary of the Club, George E. Hooker, explained how the actual growth of such nuclei, which is going on in many localities in a fragmentary way, evinces the need for the creation of neighborhood centers after more complete and perfect patterns, thus to associate together so far as appropriate at a chosen point and in a well designed structure or group of structures the institutions needed by the adjacent community, and to increase the efficiency of these institutions, create neighborhood spirit, encourage neighborhood action and contribute to the general attractiveness of the locality. The first honors in the competition were won by Miss Anna Pendleton Schenck and Miss Marcia Mead of New York City.

✤

Birmingham, Alabama, is conducting a remarkable "city beautiful" movement, initiated and encouraged by the city government, but actually carried on by the people generally. Writing of the progress that has been made in a year, George B. Ward, president of the board of city commissioners, says: "To-day there are few houses in Birmingham among the white population in which there is not at least one person actively engaged in the city beautiful movement and doing something to further the work. Amongst the negro population the city has met with hearty and useful response. The basis of the movement is found in individual endeavor, but assistance is rendered by women's clubs, professional organizations, boy scouts, railroads, manufacturers and corporations."

Important emphasis is given the movement as a part of a city governmental function. The commissioners at the beginning of the movement prepared a little pamphlet entitled "From the city beautiful to the yard beautiful" and agreed to deliver one of these pamphlets to each house in the city. With the pamphlet was sent a form for club organization and suggestions that clubs be formed. The title page bore the caption "The success of the city beautiful movement is absolutely dependent upon the enthusiastic work and co-operation of the women of Birmingham." The city promised in it to supply free street sweepings for fertilizers and it offered helpful suggestions for the planting of hedges and gave a list of plants best known for fragrance and usefulness in decorative effects. Twenty thousand of the pamphlets were distributed and then followed a campaign for block organization, with a chairman for each block.

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[1] TEXAS: Acts 33d Legislature, First Called Session, chapter 31. *Ex Parte Hopkins*, v. 171 S. W. No. 4. *Longmire vs. State*, v. 171 S. W. No. 4.

[2] From Edward T. Paxton, Bureau of Municipal Research and Reference, University of Texas.

The boys in all parts of the city were cleaning, planting and caring for the trees and flowers and hedges. From the individual efforts of the boys the work was taken up in an organized way by the boy scouts. One of these companies was instrumental in calling to Birmingham Warren H. Manning, the well-known landscape architect and as a result of his visit he was retained to draw plans for the civic improvement development of Birmingham and the country surrounding it for many miles. Of the city beautiful movement, Mr. Manning says:

"In many respects, city beautiful work in Birmingham is the most notable thing in this country. Everywhere that city beautiful work or city improvement has been undertaken, Birmingham is held up as an example of what can be done and the work here has attracted nation-wide attention. Everywhere in Birmingham men and women are found giving their time and money toward making the city beautiful."

Large corporations and manufacturing plants caught the spirit and expended large sums in improving their properties. Miles of fences necessary at furnaces and railroad yards were whitewashed and painted; weeds were cut and in their place grass was planted; ivy and vines were planted to cover brick walls and ugly buildings. The street railway system co-operated by making its right of way as clean and pretty as possible. Not only were the properties of home owners improved but the movement spread to the improvement of vacant lots, which in Birmingham as in all other cities, were an eyesore for years. Permission of the owners was secured to clean up the lots and many of them were transformed and not a few of them turned into playgrounds for the children.

There is no abatement in the interest on the part of the people at large for a beautiful Birmingham. The work has not been spasmodic and covering a single season but is of the kind that is continuous and Birmingham is convinced that it has got away from the appellation "bad Birmingham" and "busy Birmingham" and is now and will always be known as "beautiful Birmingham."[1]

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Housing Institutes at Boston and Baltimore.—The housing movement in America has now progressed so far that it is possible to hold housing institutes of those actively working on housing problems and who have become in a measure professional practitioners. At the annual national conferences of the National Housing Association a considerable part of the time is frankly devoted to addresses and discussions designed to interest the general public and those who have just begun to have an interest in the improvement of housing conditions. The institute makes no such provision. Its sole purpose is to serve as a sort of seminar for advanced students.

The association held its first institute in Boston on January 15. The members were drawn from all the New England states except Vermont, from New York and New Jersey. The attendance was unexpectedly large, 105 registering. As it was assumed that every one present was an active housing worker and consequently acquainted with the meaning and the purposes of the housing movement, there were no prepared papers. At each of the three sessions there was a general subject, subdivided into from four to six heads so as to make the discussion more definite. One person was asked to open the discussion on each of these heads and to confine himself to a terse statement of the points he believed of most importance. The subject was then thrown open for question and comment.

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[1] Richard B. Watrous, Secretary, American Civic Association.

The members of the institute represented nearly every interest in the community, though proportions varied at the different sessions. Civic organizations of many kinds maintained their interest throughout the day. Health officers and sanitarians turned out in greatest force for the afternoon session, while architects and builders concentrated on the evening session. The advantage of bringing these different elements together became apparent early in the proceedings during a discussion on "attitude toward the city administration." This was quickly inverted to "attitude by the city administration" and the interchange of opinion by city officials and civic and social workers brought out the fact that the suspicion and latent hostility with which they sometimes begin changes to friendly co-operation as personal acquaintance and mutual understanding develop. The health officer of one of the larger New England manufacturing cities, who had come prepared to resent all claims of citizens' organizations to "interfere" with his department, finally took part in the discussion as an advocate of co-operation.

The states represented at the Boston institute are pre-eminently the tenement house states of the union. Throughout New England the three-decker has secured so firm a foothold that it seems almost unassailable; New York City is known for its great tenement and apartment houses, and the large cities of New York State and New Jersey have inclined to imitate the metropolis.

So successful was this first institute that it was decided to make such institutes a regular part of the Association's work. A second was held in Baltimore on May 18, while the National Conference on Charities and Correction was in session and a third in Detroit on June 10. The meeting at Baltimore dealt with housing in southern cities.

The type of house which constitutes the most immediate problem in the south is the cheap two- and three-room shack, a contrast to the large tenement houses of the north Atlantic seaboard. But the multiple dwelling and land overcrowding are beginning to appear in the south, which must set its standards now if it does not wish to repeat the long, heartbreaking struggle of the eastern cities to mitigate in slight degree evils which can and should be prevented. Though the housing awakening in the south is so recent the attendance and the discussion at the Baltimore meeting showed that the social workers at least understand the task that confronts them.[1]

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The New York State Conference of Mayors and Other City Officials at its sixth annual meeting opened its campaign for the adoption by the constitutional convention of the home rule amendment. The evening session on June 1 was devoted exclusively to a discussion of this amendment and the needs for home rule. Corporation Counsel Arthur L. Andrews of Albany, who is chairman of the conference's committee of ten which drafted the amendment, described the work of the committee and made a strong plea for the approval of the measure by the convention. Secretary William P. Capes read messages from the governors of many of the home rule states. Among these were the following: Governor Woodbridge N. Ferris of Michigan, said: "The law in Michigan conferring home rule on all communities desirous of taking advantage of the same is in operation in a dozen or more cities in this state and so far as is known it is proving very satisfactory." Governor George P. Hunt of Arizona declared that "the powers invested in incorporated cities in this state are not regarded as being excessively broad, but have in practice operated advantageously." Governor Frank B. Willis of Ohio sent this message: "There appears to be a general sentiment of acquiescence in the grant of power within the limits prescribed in our constitution to leave it to our cities themselves to determine whether they shall have home rule and to what extent they shall embody it in their charters." Nebraska's executive, Hon. John H. Morehead, wrote: "Nebraska's constitutional provision is of a nature which relieves the legislature of a vast amount of labor and gives the people of the cities having a population of 5,000 or over the right to manage their own affairs. This, I believe, is a wise provision and results in placing the responsibility of municipal affairs in the hands of the people, where it belongs."

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[1] From John Ihlder.

The other principal subject considered was municipal finance. Deputy State Comptroller Fred G. Reusswig informed the officials that the state comptroller is planning to install a uniform accounting system in city treasurers' offices. He also announced a new plan to keep city officials informed of each statute and each amendment to existing statutes. He said that the comptroller is arranging to send city officials coming under his jurisdiction a statement of laws and amendments affecting their several offices which were enacted by the legislature last winter.

In the opening address at the conference President Rosslyn M. Cox announced that "efficiency first" is to be the slogan of the New York cities. "For four years we have been preparing to launch this slogan," he said, "and we now feel that we have an effective working organization of the municipalities to carry out comprehensive plans. In fact, during the last year we made a good start." He then summarized the conference's activities during the year. Among the important accomplishments he called particular attention to these: The president and secretary have officially visited every city in the state; plans have been perfected for establishing and financing a state bureau of municipal information; a city planning survey of the cities of the state has been completed; a health survey of the cities of the state has been started; a survey has been made of the cities in respect to the codification of their local laws and ordinances; a home rule consitutional amendment has been drafted and presented to the constitutional convention; two model and uniform ordinances have been prepared and sent to the cities, one in respect to city planning and the other for the censorship of motion pictures; membership has been accepted on the national board of censors of motion pictures; a study has been made of the cost and methods of collection and disposal of ashes and rubbish by cities; another study has been made of the methods of purifying water in free municipal indoor swimming pools; the conference during the legislative session advocated the passage of twelve bills and helped to defeat the enactment of fourteen other bills detrimental to the interests of the cities.

At the second evening session State Health Commissioner Biggs presented the preliminary report of the committee which is making the health survey of the cities of the state. Judge Harry Olson of Chicago was the second speaker, his subject being: "What is the limit of social service work by a municipality?"

The city planning survey of the cities of the state has been completed by the conference's advisory committee of city planning experts and a complete and comprehensive report was made at the last session. This included all phases of practical city planning and showed in a general way what city planning has been done and what needs to be done in the cities of the state. The report was presented by Arnold W. Brunner, Chairman; Nelson P. Lewis, chief engineer, New York City board of estimate and apportionment; Charles Dowing Lay, former landscape architect of New York; and Daniel L. Turner, deputy engineer, public service commission.

Every city in the state was represented and many sent large delegations. The state-wide tour that President Cox and Secretary Capes had made during the year had aroused a keen interest in municipal work and the activities of the conference.

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Employment Bureau for City Officials.[1]—To bring together cities and administrative experts is the newest undertaking of the bureau of municipal research and reference at the University of Texas. An index of men qualified to hold positions in municipal administrative service is kept; and lists of them sent to each city that applies for information, and to each city reported to the bureau as having adopted the city-manager plan. In presenting candidates, the bureau makes no attempt to discriminate or to recommend. Each applicant who registers is asked to file a summary of his previous training and experience, and is informed by letter of cities where his services may be in demand. Further negotiations are carried on directly between the interested parties. No charge of any kind is made by the bureau.

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[1] From Edward T. Paxton, University of Texas.

The immediate cause of this action is the rapid spread of the city-manager plan, which has taken a firm foothold in the southwest. The service, as planned by Director Herman G. James of the bureau, contemplates listing health officers, financial and accounting experts, and city engineers, as well as city managers. Indications of the first few weeks of activity seem to show that cities which are at all ready to employ men without regard to local residence, on a pure efficiency basis, are adopting the city-manager plan; and that trained men who are at all willing to try the fortunes of a career in municipal service are seeking nothing short of city-managerships.

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"Municipal Engineering" of Minneapolis and Chicago, appears with its April issue in a new form, 9 x 12 inches. It contains an interesting article bearing directly on municipal government, namely one on "Commission Government and an Engineer Manager," by H. D. Mendenhall, together with a letter on the Phoenix, Arizona, situation.

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Union of Canadian Municipalities.—Owing to the European war and the resulting fact that most of the public men in Canada are heavily preoccupied with business matters arising out of it, the authorities of the Union have considered it their duty to postpone the annual convention which was arranged to take place in Victoria, B. C., this summer. As Hon. W. D. Lighthall, the honorary secretary, states in a notice to that effect, "While disappointment will undoubtedly be caused to a number of our members, we are sure the great majority will admit the wisdom of the postponement."

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Jackson, Mich., City Manager.—Gaylord C. Cummin, city engineer of Dayton, has been made city manager of Jackson, Michigan, at a salary of $5,000 a year, succeeding Claude E. Chappell who resigned. Mr. Cummin, who was recommended by City Manager Waite of Dayton, took office on May 1.

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Dwight F. Davis, who retired in April after four years' service as park commissioner of St. Louis, has done more in those years than has been done in all the years previously to develop the parks for public recreation. Mr. Davis's tireless work was a labor of love, for he is a man of independent wealth. During his administration, although the department was crippled by meager appropriations, he developed one of the largest public recreation parks in the United States—the new fairgrounds—and constructed in it the largest artificial out-door swimming pool in the world. He increased the number of playgrounds from twelve to eighteen and installed new public bath houses. But his special contribution has been the stimulating and organizing of all sorts of athletic teams among men, women and children in all parts of the city. Municipal basket-ball, baseball and soccer leagues; free public golf links; extension of tennis courts to every park and the municipal celebration of Christmas are among the features of his work. Mr. Davis was one of the leading spirits in the movement which produced the great historical pageant and masque in St. Louis in May 1914, the largest civic spectacle ever staged.[1]

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, pp. 401, 783.

Mr. Davis had previously been active for many years in the interest of public recreation, playgrounds and athletics and was at one time international tennis champion. His contributions to recreation were also marked during his service as a member of the house of delegates and of the city plan commission and as a member of the board of freeholders which drafted the St. Louis charter,[1] defeated in 1911 but much of which was incorporated in the draft which was carried in 1914.

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H. P. James has been appointed director of public safety in the Dayton government at a salary of $4,000 per year. He was promoted from the ranks. When appointed he was fire marshall and had held this position for ten years. For a decade previous to that time he had been a fireman. He has been a conscientious and careful student of the work in which he has been engaged and his appointment is regarded by the people who know his work as a deserved promotion. We are advised that selecting a man of this type and promoting him from the ranks will be very salutary on the entire force of employes in the city.

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Raymond W. Pullman has been selected to be chief of police of the District of Columbia succeeding Major Richard Sylvester, resigned. Mr. Pullman has had no police training, but has a wide knowledge of public affairs and has been closely identified with social work. It will be interesting to see how a social worker will make out as a policeman.

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L. D. Upson resigned his position as director of the Dayton Bureau of Municipal Research to accept a position with the National Cash Register Company. He will be secretary of the executive office. C. E. Rightor has been chosen to succeed Mr. Upson as secretary of the Bureau.

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Dr. Charles R. Henderson, professor of sociology at the University of Chicago, died in Charleston, S. C., March 29. Dr. Henderson was much more than a college professor. He was an active and virile force in every progressive movement, and it is believed by many that his health was broken down through his unremitting attention to the work of the committee on unemployment of which he was the efficient chairman. He has been a member of the National Municipal League for many years.

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Louis E. Van Norman, for a number of years connected with the editorial department of the *Review of Reviews* and before that with the *Literary Digest*, has been chosen editor of the *Nation's Business*, the organ of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

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Frederick R. Leach, former director of the Cincinnati Bureau of Municipal Research, has been made a member of the Central Purchasing Committee of New York City. The other members are Henry Bruere, the city chamberlain, David Ferguson, George Tirrell, and James McGinley.

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Wayne D. Heydecker, who has been one of the assistant secretaries of the New York City Club and who is secretary of the Intercollegiate Civic Division of the National Municipal League, has accepted the secretaryship of the Chamber of Commerce at Fulton, New York.

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Roger N. Baldwin of St. Louis was elected a member of the national committee of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections at its Baltimore meeting.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 720.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLICATIONS

I. BOOK REVIEWS

THE CITY MANAGER: A NEW PROFESSION. By Harry Aubrey Toulmin, Jr. New York: D. Appleton & Company. National Municipal League Series. $1.50.

Charter framers and students of municipal government will welcome Mr. Toulmin's book on the city manager because it fills a long felt want for a non-technical popular treatise on a subject which in a short time has grown to be of nation-wide interest, but upon which little has been written. While the book is a far cry from being exhaustive, still it does present in a simple and understandable style the facts and logic of those features of the city manager plan of government which receive most attention from both its advocates and its critics. Moreover, the author has appreciated the value of including proper accounting provisions in our new city charters and has rightly emphasized this often neglected feature by devoting a well illustrated chapter to "finance measures."

By the title, one might assume that the city manager as an individual and as the chief officer of the city was the only subject treated. The sub-title "A New Profession" tends to strengthen such an assumption. Happily, however, the subject matter is of far greater scope, starting in as it does with a short recount of the history of the straight commission plan and the development out of this, or the birth, of the city-manager plan, it takes up by organization unit and in logical order some charter provisions and discussions concerning (1) the electorate (2) the commission or council (3) the manager (4) the departments, and (5) departmental administration, and finishes with a summary of results and what different people think of the plan. It is not until the sixth chapter that the city manager himself is dealt with solely, and this chapter is mostly composed of an enumeration of the powers given him in three different charters. Only two other chapters dwell upon the manager to any considerable extent, chapter seven, his means of administration through an efficient organization of departments, and chapter nine, his education and training.

Unfortunately, the author has been handicapped in getting out a timely book with only six months' operation of the Dayton plan before him. At the time of writing the book, fourteen cities were operating under the manager plan. At the time of writing this review, less than a year later, fifty-six cities and towns are operating with a manager and the number is increasing daily. Necessarily, the existing city manager charters as framed had to be called upon freely to yield a large proportion of material. The redeeming feature of this situation, however, has been cleverly supplied by the author's interesting presentation of charter sections which in their legal plumage would not ordinarily receive the attention they will command of the reader of Mr. Toulmin's book. A further redeeming feature is the argumentation and logic surrounding these sections, so arranged as to provoke deep seated thought from the reader.

A particularly impressive feature of the work is the author's sense of values that has enabled him to gather into one volume the meatiest of the material obtainable from such organizations as the National municipal league, the National short ballot organization, the Dayton bureau of municipal research, the Dayton citizens' committee and the Dayton city commission, bearing upon the city manager form of government—material which should be read simultaneously, but which seldom is, owing to the average man's inability to know and advantageously use all these sources of information.

Several organization charts and a good bibliography are included.

C. O. DUSTIN.

Springfield, Mass.

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LOWER LIVING COSTS IN CITIES. A CONSTRUCTIVE PROGRAMME FOR URBAN EFFICIENCY. By Clyde Lyndon King, Ph.D. New York: D. Appleton and Company. National Municipal League Series. $1.50.

This is a valuable book, but its chief value lies in Part II on "Urban Food Costs." The rest of the book is devoted to general questions of municipal government, some of which seem rather remotely connected with the problem of the cost of living. The author's discussion of urban food costs is sane and very suggestive. One of the most valuable chapters, Chapter VII, is on the "Controllable elements in retail prices." Other chapters of special value are IV, "The cost of food distribution"; VI, "The middleman"; XI, "Standardization and efficient marketing through producers' co-operation." Chapter XIII on "A city program for lower food costs" seems to the reviewer a little disappointing, but is a good discussion of the possibilities of water-front markets and also of a city market bureau to plan and co-ordinate a system of distribution.

The reviewer does not wish to indulge in unreasonable criticism of a book which has so many valuable features, but he can hardly overlook the author's failure to take account of one of the largest economic factors in our American urban life, namely, the enormous use which is made of the telephone in marketing. Any comparison between American and European cities which fails to take into account the fact that two-thirds of all the telephones in the world are in the United States, and three-fourths of all of them are in the United States and Canada, is an incomplete comparison, though it has doubtless a certain hortatory value. It is easy to point out that much could be saved in the cost of food, through the use of central municipal markets, but until the American housewives give up the telephone habit, they are not going in large numbers to the central municipal market, or any other kind of a market that does not offer prompt or immediate delivery.

The author states (page 7) "The American city still thinks corner-grocery-wise of its food supply," but it is not conclusively shown that there is any cheaper method of giving the American housewife the kind of service she demands than the corner-grocery method. In fact, there is much to be said in favor of the proposition that the cheapest method of rendering good service is to have a large number of small depots, widely distributed, to which food supplies may be sent in large lots, say by the truck-load, and from which they can be promptly distributed to the households, in small or retail packages. It looks as though the problem of economic distribution of food products would have to be solved with the telephone as a factor, rather than without it. If this be true, the corner grocery may serve as the depot from which the housewife may secure, at a minimum cost, prompt delivery of food in small packages. Instead, therefore, of relegating the corner grocery to a past century, a fuller knowledge of the situation may convince us that the centralized retail market belongs to a backward civilization, antedating the wide use of the telephone, a state of affairs under which the housewife went to market with her basket and carried her purchases home. This may have been a means of saving money, but it was very wasteful of human energy. With the advance in prosperity and civilization, the tendency is more and more to save human energy, even though we spend a little more money in so doing. The energy which is saved may earn more than enough to pay the extra money cost.

T. N. CARVER.

Harvard University.

EUROPEAN POLICE SYSTEMS. By Raymond B. Fosdick. New York: The Century Co., 1915.

This valuable book is based on direct personal study for more than a year and a half of the police in twenty-two cities in different European countries. While there is no detailed comparison with American conditions, the facts and conclusions will be of great service in working out the problems of police organization and control in this country.

In his first chapter Mr. Fosdick brings out the broader scope of police functions on the continent of Europe (and especially in Germany and France) than in England and the United States—including fire protection, health and building regulations. He considers, however, that this combination of heterogeneous functions under one control does not conduce to efficiency.

The police in all the capitals and most of the large commercial centers in Europe are under the direct control of the state. Only in the provincial cities of Great Britain, in Switzerland and Belgium, in Leipzig and Stuttgart, and in smaller places in Austria, is there local autonomy. The reasons advanced in European countries for state control are given; but not critically discussed. Nor is there a full discussion of the systems of state supervision over local police, though the author considers the county police in England (which are under a larger degree of central supervision) superior to the borough police.

On the continent, the police force is organized on a military basis, but with some important variations. Berlin and Prussian cities have an overcentralized military organization; Vienna a more decentralized military organization, under civil control; Paris has had a highly centralized civil organization, but the internal organization is in process of transition; in London and Great Britain, the police is a civil organization, largely decentralized.

There seems no special significance in noting that the police force is recruited from the army, in countries where military service is compulsory. But it is significant that in continental Europe the ordinary policemen come from the non-commissioned officers of the army, with from six to twelve years military service. On the continent, the ordinary policemen seldom rise above the rank of sergeant; and the officers of the police force form a distinct class.

In England, the policemen are largely country born and bred; and these are preferred to city men. The rank and file are superior in spirit and intelligence to those on the continent; and chief constables in provincial cities and district superintendents in London usually come up from the ranks.

Mr. Fosdick suggests as a compromise that the rank and file should have larger opportunities of promotion than on the continent; but that it should also be possible to appoint officers from outside sources.

All of the European countries have some system of police training, Vienna having the best equipped police school. Policemen in Germany, and to some extent in Austria, are the object of marked dislike on the part of the lower classes; while the London "Bobby" is more or less a favorite with the people.

The higher positions of police administration in Europe form a distinct profession, composed largely of jurists of university training, with long experience in the public service. London has had but six police commissioners in eighty-five years; and Berlin has had only ten police presidents since 1848. In Paris there was a long period of frequent changes; but M. Lepine was prefect of police for eighteen years.

The detective force is more highly centralized on the continent, and more decentralized in England. The London system of training for this service is said to be good, Berlin's fair, Vienna's excellent, and that of Paris meagre. The English detective shows more initiative and originality. That the results are as good in Germany as in England is due to the larger legal powers to extort evidence from suspected persons, and the better material equipment of the German police. An interesting chapter discusses methods of criminal detection.

On the whole, the police of European cities bear an excellent reputation as to integrity; and this public confidence is not undeserved. There are some instances of individual delinquencies, but no organized system. Policemen receive rewards and gratuities, and there is a widespread practice of accepting tips.

An important safeguard against police corruption is that the police are not called on to enforce standards of conduct above those of the general public. For example, public houses (saloons) are legally open in London at certain hours on Sunday; and on the continent there is no attempt at Sunday closing.

Mr. Fosdick concludes that the European police departments form an excellent piece of machinery, due to the acceptance of certain common principles: the police are not called on to enforce moral standards not approved by the public; control and authority is centered in a single official, on whom responsibility can be fixed; and the rank and file, as well as the officers, are carefully selected and trained.

John A. Fairlie.

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Government Aid to Home Owning and Housing of Working People in Foreign Countries. Bulletin No. 158 of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

One is tempted to believe that this is a partisan document. It is full of facts, nearly every other page of its 451 is decorated with orderly and symmetrical tables of facts; but with all this array some are missing which should be there, inasmuch as the others are.

The volume really does more than its title promises. It gives a brief introduction to the housing problem in many of the countries whose methods of giving aid it describes, and at least indicates that they have found it necessary to regulate as well as to assist house builders. If one may judge by internal evidence, a corps of clerks have industriously assembled pro-aid extracts, statistics and tables from hundreds of volumes, many of which are listed in alphabetical order at the ends of the chapters. But, again judging from internal evidence, not all of the compilers were familiar enough with the subject to know that housing statistics are like others and while perfectly true if rightly and thoroughly understood and carefully placed in their right relation to other equally true statistics, they may, through lack of understanding or because of wrong relationships—or none at all, produce quite an erroneous impression.

For instance, in the chapter on Great Britain and Ireland there are figures which seem to indicate that London is actually deriving a net revenue from its municipal housing schemes. This leads the compiler, or the commentator if they be different persons, to say: "The rents . . are fixed in accordance with two principles. They must not exceed the rates prevailing in the neighborhood and they must be sufficient to insure that after providing for all expenditures for maintenance and capital charges the dwellings shall be self-supporting."

This may have seemed a very simple proposition to the one who wrote it out so clearly for our edification; but did he ever stop to think? London condemns an unsanitary area. It buys the land and buildings at a very good price—London has found no royal road to the cheap purchase of real estate. It demolishes the buildings. It then erects much better buildings and in them it puts fewer people per room than the old buildings had held. It charges approximately the same low rent per room that was charged in the old buildings. And its new buildings are self-supporting, even pay a net return!

It cannot be done, and London has not done it. One thing that London has done has been to charge off a considerable part of the purchase price, revaluing the land on a housing basis. A considerable part of the cost of the undertaking thus disappears from the housing account, though it still continues to bear its part in the tax rate.

The same easy acceptance of statistics

at face value appears in the account of Liverpool's housing enterprises, which are credited with earning from 1 per cent to 4.12 per cent net on the outlay, though the report of the health officer for 1913 (p. 301) shows that the annual deficit is £34,213, equivalent to 2½d in the £, for the ratepayer. Such easy-going copying of old tables is the more inexcusable as Liverpool has for years admitted that its municipal tenements were not paying their way. Apparently some rumor to this effect has reached the ears of the commentator, for he says: "It is difficult to obtain data showing the exact status financially of Liverpool's housing enterprises." In the text above the tables he says that Liverpool "definitely gave up all idea of an economic rent." Below them he adds, "Consequently the net return on outlay would have to be considerably larger than shown above to make the venture a success, if regarded solely from the economic point of view. Nevertheless the returns are better than they seem at first glance." (!)

This gives an even more definite impression that the schemes are paying their way than the London description, which contains the qualification that for various reasons schemes were "unduly costly," though it is not stated that they constitute a burden on the taxpayer. Only when summarizing the government loans to 131 different urban authorities is there a clear admission of loss; and the losses there admitted are annual deficits of only £107 for loans sanctioned before March 31, 1912, and of £270 for loans sanctioned the following year.

By the time he had reached Birmingham in his compilation, the compiler's doubt had become well-grounded suspicion and he credits poor Birmingham alone, Birmingham which has done comparatively little in municipal housing and most in guiding and regulating private housing, with the practice of writing down the value of its land to "housing value." But again he prints a table showing a net return of from 2.46 per cent to 4.66 per cent. Perhaps it is anger at finding Birmingham dealing in such unworthy subterfuges, perhaps it is resentment that Birmingham had indulged in only three municipal enterprises, and these comparatively small, that makes him take a final fling at it before passing on to Manchester. "The town-planning act of 1909," he says, "gave cities greatly increased powers in the way of controlling the building up of new suburbs. Birmingham has already undertaken large and expensive schemes of this kind, and it seems probable that henceforth the city will put much more energy into the prevention of future slums than into the abolition of those developed in the past."

Were comparisons not notoriously so odious—in speaking of slums it would almost seem that the ribald paraphrase of this reverend quotation were more fitting —it might be possible to mention other English cities which have spent many times as much as has Birmingham on municipal tenements and yet have left large areas of their slums in worse condition than Birmingham has left hers. There are those who believe that Birmingham is but at the beginning of her housing career and that before she finishes she will have something better to show in her present slum areas than a thousand municipal tenements.

To follow our commentator on to Manchester. Apparently he has exhausted his venom, or he has begun a new and brighter day, for he discusses, it would almost seem with approval, Manchester's version of the Birmingham method of slum improvement—which Birmingham admits is but a temporary expedient. This is to compel the owners of old houses to make them sanitary, even, when necessary to secure light and ventilation, by tearing down obstructive houses. "In 1902," he says, "it was calculated that the amount thus spent by the corporation (in compensation) up to date did not exceed in round numbers £25,000 ($121,663)." A paltry sum compared with Liverpool's annual deficit of £34,000.

Yet it may be that the reason for this forbearance lies deeper. Certainly it does not lie on the surface, for our commentator tells us briefly that Manchester spent some £285,000 ($1,386,953) in one good-sized municipal housing scheme, that almost simultaneously it undertook several smaller schemes—and then rested for several years. Incidentally there are two tables regarding Manchester which the careful reader will do well to study. The first does show the difference between housing value and actual cost of site. By substituting the latter for the former in the second table he may, if he enjoys figuring, be able to learn what Manchester knows.

After its long rest, Manchester, in 1901, started a municipal garden suburb, on land costing £35,643 ($173,457). Before finishing the suburb, Manchester again rested. Again there are tables showing net returns of from .12 per cent to 3.67 per cent. These, like the preceding optimistic statements, are taken from W. Thompson's "Housing Up To Date," 1907.

Apparently the clerk who culled these tables from Mr. Thompson's valuable book did not read the text accompanying them, for Mr. Thompson repeatedly states that the tables are based upon a "housing valuation" of the land, which is far from representing its cost. See "Housing Up To Date," pp. 36, 41, 61, 73. More than this, Mr. Thompson in his effort to be perfectly clear, gives the following on pages 73 and 74:

"Reference has been made on more than one occasion to the fact that it is the practice of many municipalities in connection with rehousing schemes, to charge to the dwellings account only the value put upon the sites by the Council's valuer, instead of their actual cost. The vagaries that are possible under the present system are easily seen from a study of the comparative figures of the Brightlingsea building site acquired for re-housing purposes.

Cost of acquisition of site	£12,000
Commercial value of site.......	2,150
Housing valuation	1,000
Value charged to housing scheme	Nil

Thus assuming the ordinary expenses of management, the rents should not be less than 3s. 8d. per room per week to make a commercial profit, but they average only 2s. 2d. per room, so the dwellings are subsidised to the extent of 1s. 6d. per room per week."

This illuminating statement seems to have entirely escaped the notice of the industrious clerk, so the commentator continued to make his erroneous deductions. In any case, why should not the director of this research have directed his assistants to consult the reports of city treasurers? These reports, in spite of their forbidding appearance, sometimes contain facts of interest and value. For example, that of the city treasurer of Manchester for the year ending March 31, 1913, states that the local municipal housing enterprises have resulted in an annual deficit of £14,188 3s. 4d.

"Government Aid to Home Owning," etc., is a fairly ponderous volume, as befits both its subject and its publisher. It is filled with facts, many of them valuable. It tells about many countries in Europe, America, north and south, and the antipodes. It has an index which assists one to find these things, but one of its most important features is its omissions.

John Ihlder.

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The Middle West Side. By Otho G. Cartwright. Mothers Who Must Earn. By Katharine Anthony. (In one volume.) Boyhood and Lawlessness. The Neglected Girl. By Ruth S. True. (In one volume.) $2.00 each. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1914.

The four social surveys published in these two volumes are the product of the Bureau of Social Research of the New York School of Philanthropy financed by the Russell Sage Foundation. They pertain to a limited area of New York City consisting of 80 blocks bordering on the Hudson River between 34th and 54th streets, perhaps the most homogeneous and distinctly American section of the city.

The Middle West Side is an historical and descriptive sketch of the neighborhood by Otho G. Cartwright. It is intended to serve as a background for the more specialized studies. It describes the population, the industries and the conditions of life in general. The region is portrayed as a "'backset' from the main current of the city's life" in which may be seen "some of the most acute social problems of modern urban life."

Mothers Who Must Earn, by Katharine Anthony, is a study of the economic and social causes, including hardship and suffering due to sickness, injury, underpayment, unemployment, or death of husbands, which compel mothers to become wage-earners, as well as the conditions of their employment, their occupations, and the consequences for their homes and families. Definite information is given in statistical form as to hours of work, wages and incomes, etc. of the 370 west side working mothers, "who had become wage-earners in obedience to the most primitive of maternal instincts" in order to protect their children from actual suffering.

Boyhood and Lawlessness is the collaboration of a group of investigators. Chapters are devoted to his background, his playground, his games, his gangs, his home, the boy and the court, and the centre of the problem. The whole is an inductive study of the anti-social lad, potential and actual. Two hundred and ninety-four boys guilty of juvenile delinquency were studied, all of whom were under 16 years of age. The one purpose seems to be to describe the agencies constructive and destructive, which result in making the boys of the region what they are. Only by the possession of such knowledge can real improvement be made.

The Neglected Girl, by Ruth True, presents the case of 65 girls from 55 families most, *i. e.*, 73 per cent, of which had at some time been assisted by some relief agency. The "cases" were studied through the instrumentality of a girls' club organized and conducted for the purpose. The same painstaking care is taken to reveal the neglected girl as she is—a product of her environment for which she is in no way responsible.

The studies furnish not only a rich source of first-hand material of a concrete sort, but also an excellent sample of a scientific social philosophy.

J. P. Lichtenberger.

University of Pennsylvania.

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A Social Survey of the Washington Street District of New York City. Instituted and Conducted Under the Direction of Trinity Church Men's Committee, New York City, October, 1914.

The social survey as a means of acquiring a comprehensive view of the social assets and liabilities of a given community is now a recognized necessity as a prerequisite to any well-organized program of welfare work. This pamphlet is a survey of a distinct and limited section of New York City and comprises a study of housing, immigration, recreation, industrial conditions, child welfare, delinquency, and health. Descriptive material is accompanied by illustrations and diagrams and is a graphic presentation of the social conditions of the district. The work was instituted and conducted by the Trinity Church Men's Committee. Aside from its value to social workers it is a splendid exhibit of the new religious conscience on the question of social responsibility.

J. P. L.

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Town Planning, With Special Reference to the Birmingham Schemes. By George Cadbury, Jr. London and New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

No book has yet been published in English which deals in a comprehensive way with the subject of town planning. Mr. Cadbury in this volume adds one to the list of town planning studies which have been prepared with a limited viewpoint. The book deals altogether with town planning in Great Britain, especially as practiced under the Housing and Town Planning Act of 1909. Chapter I treats of the need of town planning, but not fully; Chapter II with town planning in Birmingham and its vicinity. Chapter III shows how a town planning scheme may be prepared by local authority under the act of 1909 and makes a number of useful concrete suggestions of method. The planning of roads is treated in the next chapter. The allocation of sites for factories, recreation centers and residences is considered in a brief but fairly practical manner in Chapter V. In the treatment of residential areas and limitation of the number of houses to the acre Mr. Cadbury draws his data almost exclusively from Raymond Unwin. The provision of gardens and allotments and questions of public health are accorded brief consideration.

The book will doubtless be of use to the citizens of Birmingham and vicinity because of the frequent discussion of local problems and methods. It will be valuable to English citizens generally for its practical treatment of the means of preparing town planning schemes under the legislation of that country. The book will not have wide use in America, but does contain suggestions and local legislative data of some value for American specialists in town planning.

The first appendix, in thirty pages, describes the East Birmingham town planning scheme. The second appendix contains a reproduction of Part II of the Housing and Town Planning Act of 1909.

James Ford.

Harvard University.

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The Finances of the City of New York. By Yin Ch'u Ma, Ph. D. New York: Columbia University—Longmans, Green & Company, Agents. $2.50.

An exploration into the intricacies of New York City finances is at best a hazardous undertaking, and must require special courage when pursued by a stranger from over the seas. The author of this monograph apparently realizes the enormity of the task, and expresses regret that he has been unable fully to comprehend all the factors which ought to be taken into consideration and that he has therefore failed to describe fully the whole financial situation. His hope is that the work may be translated into the Chinese language, and in this way may carry some helpful suggestions to the fiscal authorities of the Chinese government. The extent to which the financial system of New York City can be adapted to Chinese conditions will doubtless have to be determined by the Chinese themselves; and the possible value of this volume as a contribution to the economic development of China is not for us to attempt to measure.

Its place in our own economic literature is another matter. First, it is descriptive in character. It is neither critical nor constructive. The author has aimed to portray the present method of administering finances in Greater New York. The protean nature of the city charter in the hands of the legislature makes this an almost impossible achievement, and Mr. Yin's attempt was no exception; for while his picture was in the finishing process a legislative amendment to the charter gave the creature a new shape. That is not to say, however, that he has been altogether unsuccessful; for it happened that the change thus made was anticipated (pp. 218–219), having been already recommended by the comptroller. It merely shows how difficult it is under present conditions to write a description of any phase of the city's government which will not be out of date before it can be printed.

The whole subject is divided into four parts, as follows: (1) scientific budget-making, (2) the system of taxation, (3) the city debt, (4) control of revenues and expenditures under the new system of accounting.

The first part gives a detailed history of the annual budget-making from the submission of estimates by the heads of departments to the final approval by the board of aldermen and the mayor. Special emphasis is laid upon the segregation of budgetary estimates, the minute specification of purposes for which certain moneys may be expended, so as strictly to limit the administrative officers in the use of funds appropriated for their respective departments.

In referring to the dominant part played by the board of estimate and apportionment in making the budget, Mr. Yin takes issue with those who are led "to believe that New York City, though governed by a mayor, has really taken on the commission form of government, because almost all the powers of regulating the city's affairs are lodged in the board of estimate and apportionment" (page 96). To combat this belief he indulges in the curious argument that the control of the board of estimate and apportionment over expenditures is not so great as it appears to be because the appropriation of a large part of the budget is made mandatory by law. A brief study of the charter of Greater New York, notably sections 56, 169 and 242, and a hasty perusal of the annual proceedings of the board of estimate and apportionment should convince Mr. Yin that the belief alluded to has substantial foundation in law and in fact even apart from the powers of the Board with reference to the budget.

The second part, consisting of two chapters, describes the methods of assessment and collection of taxes, showing that the chief burden of taxation falls upon real estate. The third part in three chapters explains the character of the city's debt and the ways of borrowing money. Since these chapters were written an amendment has been added to the charter which provides that whenever the board of extimate and apportionment authorizes public improvements to be paid from the tax levy of the next succeeding year or series of years the comptroller may issue notes in anticipation of such taxes, provided that such notes shall mature not later than the year in anticipation of the tax levy whereof they were issued. They are known as "tax notes" (Charter, section 189, as amended by L. 1914, ch. 474). This provision practically embodies the recommendations of Comptroller Prendergast as given on pages 218–19 of Mr. Yin's monograph.

In the last part four chapters are devoted to an exposition of the present system of accounting by which the finance department is enabled to exercise a rigid supervision over the expenditures and accounts of all departments. The author's conclusion seems to be that the debt limit fixed by the constitution, coupled with this control over expenditures, furnishes an ample safeguard against extravagance. An up-to-date system of accounting doubtless prevents much waste in the use of departmental funds; but of course it is no restraint whatever upon the initial extravagance of appropriations. And that the constitutional "debt limit," namely 10 per cent of the assessed value of taxable real estate, is no insurmountable obstacle, is strikingly illustrated by the fact that by virtue of exceptions provided for in the constitution (article VIII, Section 10), the actual debt of New York City on June 30, 1914, exceeded the so-called constitutional debt limit by more than $400,000,000, and there still remained within that limit a margin of over $50,000,000.[1]

A serious mechanical defect in the volume is in its citation of authorities. Of course the financial system of the city is based upon provisions in the charter; but although frequent reference is made directly or indirectly to these provisions, in nearly three hundred pages of text the charter is cited specifically only about half a dozen times. There is the same failure to cite provisions of the state constitution (*e. g.*, pp. 169, 170, 173, 196, etc.). Furthermore the author displays a surprising tendency to rely on newspaper reports, public addresses and magazine articles rather than upon official records and documents. Instances of this weakness appear on pages 151, 188, 197, 223 and in many other places. Much of the information is taken from publications of the Bureau of Municipal Research, particularly those entitled "Scientific Budget-Making versus Rule-of-Thumb Budget-Making" (1913), "No matter Who is Elected" (1913), and "Six Years of Municipal Research for New York City" (1906–1911), all of which are cited frequently.

On the whole, it can be said that the work is an interesting collection of information, not complete, without any particularly suggestive conclusions, and with the faults which are perhaps inevitable in the case of a stranger working among strange surroundings.

F. Morse Hubbard.

Columbia University.

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[1] Semi-annual Report of Comptroller, June 30, 1914.

Democracy's High School. By William D. Lewis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co.

A Course in Citizenship. By Ella Lyman Cabot, Fannie Fern Andrews, Fanny E. Coe, Mabel Hill, Mary McSkimmon. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co.

The Teaching of Civics. By Mabel Hill. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Makers of America. By Emma Lilian Dana. New York: Immigration Publication Society.

A Primer of Civics. Issued by the Colonial Dames of Illinois.

Foreigners' Guide to English. By Azniv Beshgeturian. New York: Immigration Publication Society.

Civil Government of Idaho. By C. E. Rose. Boise, Idaho: Syms–York Co.

The modern high school has come to be the *bete noir* of our educational system. In its inception a democratic offshoot of the English "public school" it is now attacked as one of the striking anomalies of our republic—an institution supported by the state and designed to turn out intelligent citizens, but whose only actual service is that of preparing students for college. Principal Lewis, as the head of one of our great metropolitan high schools, should be able to speak with authority, and through the one-hundred and twenty-five pages of his excellent monograph there is no uncertain note. Sympathy is extended to the "motor-minded" pupil whom the curriculum fails to interest, but not a grain of comfort is held out to any one else. The high school is indicted for failing to give its students practical knowledge; for permitting its students to harbor false ideals; for setting up un-democratic systems of discipline; for over-stressing mathematics and the dead languages; for demanding too much specialization of its teachers; for neglecting the health of the girls; and, lastly, and most important of all, for arranging its schedule to meet the requirements of college entrance.

There can be no question that the high school as it is now constituted is a vulnerable spot. The dilettantism of its graduates has passed into a proverb. College and university authorities complain of poor preparation, yet the best thought and attention of the high school is given to this matter of training students for college. Too often only the indifferent students are urged to take the domestic science and manual training courses. Over-specialization is narrowing the horizon of many teachers both in the high school and in the college. To these criticisms many more might be added and Mr. Lewis does not pretend that he has exhausted his vocabulary of denunciatory adjectives. But as there is an "other hand" to every question so in the present case the defence is not without arguments. The high school as an evolution from the classical academy has not been in existence long enough to break away from its traditions, although signs are not wanting that the day of emancipation is not far distant. The problem of providing courses to suit the needs of all classes of students is no easy one and cannot be solved in a generation. Colleges will continue to dictate so long as the high schools cut their students to suit the Procrustian bed—and no longer. If Mr. Lewis should embody the constructive ideas he must possess into a definite program for high schools he would thereby perform an even greater service for the cause of education.

Books on citizenship are multiplying rapidly but it is not often that writers do more than deal in glittering generalities and stale truisms. A volume has recently appeared, the aim of which is to drill out of the American youth all anti-social predilections and thus create a race of Cincinnati. For this purpose the *Course in Citizenship* is arranged to fit all grades. The youngest pupils are to be taught what their duties are as members of a family; the second grade takes as its topic the school and the playground; the third, the neighborhood; the fourth, the town; the fifth, the nation; the sixth, American ideals; the seventh, the United States; the eighth, the world-family. Although treating the subjects somewhat idealistically there is every reason for thinking the program as outlined could be profitably followed in all public schools.

Miss Hill's book is another attempt to meet the growing demand for citizen training. The Squeers method is suggested as the latest frill in civics teaching. The child should learn not only what the duties are which devolve upon citizens but should be required to put into training what he has learned. Among the topics to be discussed in the class-room (to be supplemented by personal observation) are the following: Community health, public highways, public education, immigration, rights of citizenship, postal service.

C. E. Rose in *Civil Government of Idaho* fills his little volume with information intended to give the students some knowledge of local, state, and national government. Designed to meet local needs, the general plan of this outline might well be followed by teachers of civics in every state.

Two valuable books have recently been put out by the Immigration Publication Society, and with them may be mentioned a small primer issued by the Colonial Dames of Illinois. In the *Makers of America* the lives of Franklin, Washington, Jefferson and Lincoln are recounted in simple but impressive language. The *Primer of Civics* is a compendium of information for the prospective citizen of foreign birth. The process of naturalization is described in detail; good advice is offered regarding the sacred duties of United States citizens; the operation of the national and the local governments is outlined. At the end a brief résumé of the history of the United States is given.

The Foreigners' Guide to English was written by a teacher in the Boston evening schools. The author (evidently not an American with McGuffian traditions) believes in reasoning from the known to the unknown. This reader is designed to meet the needs of the foreigner attacking the English language for the first time and is eminently practical. Mr. Beshgeturian will be pardoned for devoting a page to Boston describing it as one of our largest cities, with clean streets, busy factories, pretty stores, good school-houses, etc., while passing by Philadelphia with the comment that it is also quite large and only an hour's run from New York.

J. C. McGregor.

Washington, Pa.

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American Chambers of Commerce. By Kenneth Sturges. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co. $2.00 net.

So far as this volume deals with the origin and history of boards of trade, chambers of commerce and kindred organizations in the United States, and so far as it surveys the functions of these bodies, it is to be highly commended as a careful piece of work. When the author comes to discuss such questions as "City government reform," "Co-operation with authorities," and "Civic improvement," he is less satisfying, due to the fact that the volume is an academic essay prepared when an undergraduate. It was submitted for and won the David A. Wells prize at Williams College.

As the author points out, in recent years business bodies have been recognized as important factors in the growth and welfare of our cities. His aim has been to show this development with particular reference to their modern functions as civic organizations. He properly selects the Cleveland chamber of commerce, which has been called by some "a chamber of citizenship," as the one organization worthy of careful study and extended treatment. In this he has done well because he establishes a norm which other organizations could follow with useful results.

In addition to the general discussion of the whole subject, the book contains the full text of the standardized by-laws for chambers of commerce recently approved by the National association of commercial organization secretaries, a brief but suggestive bibliography, and an excellent index. It is an interesting fact to note that Mr. Sturges, as a result of his work on this book, was made one of the assistant secretaries of the Cleveland chamber of commerce.

Summary of State Laws Relating to the Dependent Classes, 1913. Washington: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. 1914.

Since the year 1863, when Massachusetts through a state board of charities first undertook to supervise the whole system of state charitable and correctional institutions, the movement has spread, slowly at first, but finally, to every state in the union. No state fails in some way to provide for its social debtor classes. Along with this extension of provision has gone a broadening of scope and a changed attitude. Provision is now made for all dependent classes and this, not of necessity but of public duty. State *charity* and *almsgiving* is being replaced by state *aid*. The function of the state is being extended not only in the form of adequate provision in its own institutions, but even to supervision of privately-managed institutions.

This volume is a summary prepared by the bureau of the census, of the more important features of the laws of all the states in force in 1913 relating to the administration and supervision of all "agencies dealing with the dependent classes; the laws relating to the condition and methods of poor relief, institutional and outdoor, and the provisions made for special classes—children, the sick, the blind, the deaf, the insane, the feeble-minded, the epileptic, the inebriate, and soldiers, sailors and marines." It is an invaluable record for purposes of comparative study by all who are interested in this phase of social activity.

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Social Laws of Pennsylvania. By Ward Bonsall. Published by the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh and the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity. $1.50.

Mr. Bonsall presents concisely, and in so far as the subject will permit, in non-technical language, the provisions of the Pennsylvania statutes having to do with social relations and the conditions of families and persons with whom social workers come in contact. The subjects dealt with are: Children, children and the courts, desertion and non-support, poor law, mental defectives, public health, criminal law, collection of debts, labor, marriage, divorce and married women, and decedents.

The work is admirably done and may well be regarded as a model for social and civic workers in other communities.

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The Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science. Vol. V, Nos. 1 and 2. 1915. New York: Columbia University.

These two volumes are devoted to a consideration of the revision of the state constitution, now an important pending question in New York. The first deals with the general principles and mechanics of the revision of the structure of state government, and contains constructive articles from those who are taking a leading part in the constitutional conventional now in session, as well as from other prominent publicists. Under the head of "The structure of state government," the questions of the electorate, the legislature, the executive and the judiciary are considered, as well as general state agencies. The second takes up city and county government and contains an impressive and thoughtful discussion by Professor Howard Lee McBain,[1] of Columbia, who as special counsel for the city is preparing the home rule provisions for discussion by the convention and by Laurence Arnold Tanzer, who presents another proposition, which has excited a lot of wholesome debate. Mayor Mitchel and former Governor Glynn join in the discussion in formal papers and Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, Secretary Robert S. Binkerd of the New York city club, and Secretary Walter T. Arndt of the Municipal government association of New York State consider the question informally. Dr. Wilcox, setting forth as a member of the National municipal league's committee on municipal program, the views of that body, pointed out that the fundamental question in the home rule proposition is this: Shall we continue the American policy from which we have been trying to get away, in an academic discussion at least, for 20 years, of considering that cities have only those rights which are specifically expressed in their charters, granted by the legislature, or shall we reverse that process and give to cities, by a broad grant of general power, applicable alike to cities which frame their own charters, and to other charters, and to other cities, the right to control their local affairs?

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[1] Professor McBain will also shortly publish a volume on home rule.

Professor McBain reached four conclusions. 1. That whatever provision is framed should be self-executing. 2. That nothing can be gained by requiring, as in California, that the charter be submitted in toto to the legislature for approval; or, as in Michigan and Oklahoma to the governor. 3. That the convention should consider all other provisions with particular reference to the home rule rights conferred. 4. That it should be remembered that in all probability some cities of the state will organize under charters of their own making and some will not. Mr. Tanzer's paper was accompanied by a draft of a proposed constitutional amendment representing the views held by him and his colleagues in the Municipal government association.

Other interesting problems discussed are public service commissions, public franchises, water power conservation, charitable and correctional institutions and constutional limitations on governmental powers.

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Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction at the Forty-first Annual Session. Memphis, Tenn., May 8–15, 1914. Fort Wayne, Ind.: Fort Wayne Printing Company, 1914.

Proceedings of the Third Biennial Meeting of the National Conference of Catholic Charities, September 20–23, 1914. Washington: Catholic University of America, 1914.

Battling for Social Betterment. Proceedings of the Southern Sociological Congress, Memphis, Tennessee, May 6–10, 1914. James E. McCulloch, Nashville: Southern Sociological Congress, 1914.

National and local conferences of the leaders in social work have come to be recognized as among the most significant forces within the entire range of constructive effort for human welfare for the moulding of public opinion and for the creating of programs. Published proceedings of such meetings rank high in the literature of social service. Experts bring to these conferences their best thought wrought out in the heat of struggle with anti-social forces. Methods are exhibited and compared. Both principles and procedures are thus clarified and improved. The breadth of scope of such conferences is illustrated in the contents of the three volumes above mentioned. The national Conferences of Charities and Corrections contains numerous papers under the following heads: (1) Corrections, (2) the family and the community; (3) children, (4) social hygiene, (5) health, (6) defectives, (7) standards of living and labor (8) neighborhood development, and (9) public charities.

The National Conference of (Roman) Catholic Charities presents its material under the supervision of committees dealing with the following principal subjects: (1) Families, (2) sick and defectives, (3) children, (4) social and civic activities.

In contrast with the American Sociological Society, a scientific society concerned with sociology as a science, the southern congress is a practical organization for social betterment. It grew out of the idea that "the best intelligence and leadership of the south should study and improve and interpret its social and civic life." The congress maintains six departments of work and investigation: (1) public health, (2) courts and prisons, (3) child welfare, (4) associated charities, (5) race relations, (6) the church and social service. Since the congress met in conjunction with the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, the subjects were divided, the Conference dealing with the first four and the congress with the last two. The report of the congress deals, then, merely with the church and social service, and race relations.

These three volumes contain a rich treasure of social information, presented from slightly different points of view, viz., the social worker, the religionist, the social student, but with one common aim and purpose. All the volumes are indexed and exceedingly usable as source books of social information.

II. BOOKS RECEIVED

American Women in Civic Work. By Helen Christine Bennett. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company. $1.25.

Ancient Town Planning. By F. Haverfield. Oxford: The Clarendon Press. 6 shillings.

Anti-Saloon League Year Book, 1915. Edited by Ernest H. Cherrington. Published by the Anti-Saloon League of America. 25 cents.

Samuel Billings Capen, His Life and Work. By Chauncey J. Hawkins. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.25 net.

Central Electric Light and Power Stations and Street and Electric Railways, with Summary of the Electrical Industries. 1912. Washington: Bureau of the Census. 1915.

Church and State in Massachusetts 1691–1740. By Susan Martha Reed, Ph.D. University of Illinois Studies in Social Sciences. Published by the University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. $1.05.

City Life and Its Amelioration. By George Sharp. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.

The Government of the City of New York. A Collection of Addresses and Discussions Presented at a Series of Eleven Lecture-Conferences held under the Auspices of the Academy of Political Science in the City of New York with the Co-operation of the Bureau of Municipal Research, the Institute of Arts and Sciences of Columbia University, and a Citizens' Committee, April 7 to 30, 1915. New York State Consitutional Convention Commission. 1915.

Hygiene for the Worker. By William H. Tolman, Ph.D. and Adelaide Wood Guthrie. New York: American Book Company. Crampton's Social Hygiene Series. 50 cents.

Installing Efficiency Methods. By C. E. Knoeppel. New York: The Engineering Magazine. 1915.

Jesus and Politics. By Harold B. Shepheard. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.

Journal of the American Water Works Association. Proceedings 35th Year. March, 1915. Published by the American Water Works Association, 47 State St., Troy, N. Y.

The Law as a Vocation. By Frederick J. Allen. Boston: The Vocation Bureau. $1.

Legal Principles of Public Health Administration. By Henry Bixby Hemenway, A.M., M.D. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.

The Life of a Citizen. By J. Augustus Johnson. New York City: Vail-Ballou Press.

Municipal Glasgow: Its Evolution and Enterprises. Issued by the Corporation of the City of Glasgow. 1915.

Municipal Office Organisation and Management. Edited by William Bateson. New York and London: Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd. $8.

My Battles with Vice. By Virginia Brooks. New York: The Macaulay Co. 1915.

Nebraska Blue Book and Historical Register. 1915. Edited by Addison E. Sheldon. Lincoln, Neb.: Legislative Reference Bureau.

Proceedings of the Inauguration of John Huston Finley. University of the State of New York, Annual Report, 1914. Vol. 4.

Official South African Municipal Year Book. 1914. Edited by W. P. M. Henderson and Francis G. Pay. Published by Francis G. Pay, Cape Town, South Africa.

Opinions of the City Solicitor of Philadelphia from January to December, 1914.

Paupers in Almshouses. 1910. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of the Census. 1915.

The Problem of Greater New York and Its Solution. By Harry Chase Brearley. Published under the auspices of the Committee on Industrial Advancement of the Brooklyn League by the Search-Light Book Corporation, New York City. $1.

Public Utilities: Their Fair Present Value and Return. By Hammond V. Hayes, Ph.D. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company. $2.

Publicity and Progress. By Herbert Heebner Smith. New York: George H. Doran Company. $1.

Report of the Bureau of Franchises of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of the City of New York. 1914.

Report of the Efficiency and Economy Committee Created under the Authority of the Forty-eighth General Assembly of the State of Illinois. 1915.

Second Annual Industrial Directory of New York State. 1913. Compiled by James M. Lynch, Commissioner of Labor. Albany, N. Y.: Department of Labor. 1915.

Summary of Penal Ordinances of Chicago, also Police Department Organization Ordinances and Duties of Police. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co. 1914.

A Survey of Opportunities for Vocational Education in and near Philadelphia. Compiled by Jane R. Harper. Philadelphia: Publication Education Association. 25 cents.

"The System" as Uncovered by The San Francisco Graft Prosecution. By Franklin Hichborn. San Francisco: James H. Barry Company. $1.50.

Valuation of Public Service Corporations. Supplement. By Robert H. Whitten. New York: Banks Law Publishing Co.

Woman's Work in Municipalities. By Mary Ritter Beard. National Municipal League Series. New York: D. Appleton & Company. $1.50.

III. REVIEWS OF REPORTS

Municipal Civil Service Reports.—Practical methods in the administration of municipal civil service laws are continually coming into more common use, and emphasis is laid upon the practical phase of the work by several of the recent reports of municipal civil service commissions.

The thirty-first annual report of the city of New York, being for the year 1914, contains the following:

Study of the types of examinations held in the past showed clearly the need for more care in preparation for the examination. It seemed to this commission that it was extremely important to obtain from appointing officers full and complete information as to the precise duties of each position in which they were interested and of the general character and qualifications, both in training and in personality which they desired candidates to possess.

This commission has also resorted to the use of oral examinations where the personality of the candidate is an important factor. It believes that through oral tests the commission is able to select candidates on the same principle used by a private employer.

In its first annual report, for the year ending June 30, 1914, the Los Angeles county civil service commission says:

> The commission seeks to simplify examinations and to make them practical and suitable to the desired ends. Wherever necessary, the written test is supplemented with a practical test or oral interview.

The second annual report of the Minneapolis civil service commission has the following:

> In so far as time would permit with the force at hand and the funds available, standards have been established for the different examination subjects.

The report for the Philadelphia civil service commission for 1913 has the following:

> The principal need in the civil service in the city is equal pay for equal duties. Salaries are not proportionate to duties and responsibilities. The problem should be solved by the joint efforts of councils and the civil service commission. It is the function of the commission to group the positions into grades, having in mind similar duties and responsibilities and councils should determine and appropriate the proper salary which would apply alike to all positions in a grade. To that end the finance committee and the commission should meet and act in conjunction.

This phase of the work has, perhaps, received more attention in Chicago than elsewhere and comment on the latest Chicago report is largely on such matters.

This, of course, is by no means the first appearance of the practical test; but the fact that practical tests are emphasized by several commissions in widely separated sections of the country shows a tendency toward their more general use. Surely it is a commendable feature in the administration of civil service laws and one intended to gain favor with those who have hitherto been opposed to the merit system "as administered." The adoption of practical methods, the introduction of practical tests, wherein the applicant for a position is actually given a chance to perform the duties which the position he seeks will require of him, and the elimination of questions which have little bearing on the ability of the applicant for the position sought will at once disarm many enemies of civil service and make it many friends. It means that civil service laws will be judged by results in the entire service, taking into consideration better organization, improved methods, and so forth; and not alone upon the selection of more fit persons for the work and assurance of their retention during good behavior.

An examination of reports from a number of municipal civil service commissions shows a decided lack of uniformity in the manner of making reports on the work in hand. For example, some reports give the number of employes in the service at the present time, the number and character of examinations held during the period covered by the report, the amount of money expended on the service, etc. Other reports do not even give the number of employes under the jurisdiction of the commission; some do not cite the number of examinations held; and many say nothing about the amount of money used.

The improvements brought about by the application of the merit system should admit of considerable comparison all over the country. It is true a great many features of the work incident to some localities would not be included in others. But there are a large number of civil service commission activities that should be common to all localities and should appear in any intelligent report of the commission's activities. These should permit of comparison to show whether or not different commissions are operating with a reasonable degree of efficiency, and to give information to various commissions about the activities and improved ideas of others. Without suggesting points to be covered, which should be decided only after the most careful study by those actively engaged in the work in different localities, the suggestion is made that a great deal of good might come from the use of a common form of report. In addition to making it possible for those administering the law to compare results, this plan might aid in introducing common standards all over the country and form the foundation for further advance on common ground in the application of the merit system.

Because of the lack, in so many instances, of any common ground of comparison this review will touch upon the important steps taken by different municipal commissions, rather than showing in a tabulated form the common advance of the commissions concerned.

New York. This commission's report for the year 1914 cites the establishment of a bureau of information and complaints which ought to prove a valuable adjunct to the work of the commission. It has already relieved the secretary's office of much detail work. In the examination division this commission proposes:

(1) Improvements in the type of examination;

(2) Improvements in methods of the examination division;

(3) Improvements in the method of advertising.

An examination budget, so to speak, is proposed whereby the commission can plan its work by anticipating in advance the number and character of examinations for the year.

There is no more important place for improvement than in the field of examination. The more simple the method of examination, the more simple the subject matter and the more clearly these are understood by the public and the applicants the greater will be the degree of general satisfaction.

Linked with the examination problem is that of advertising; and judging from the report made by the New York commission a substantial step in advance has been taken in the improvement in its methods of advertising. Whereas advertisements of examinations were previously uniformly inserted as legal notices, they are now placed in publications intended to reach individuals likely to be interested in the particular examination advertised. Some publishers have agreed to put the advertisement under the heading "Civil service." The commission cites that during the year 1913, 53 examinations were advertised at a cost of $21,718.30, an average of $409.78 per examination. During the year 1914, 92 examinations were advertised at a cost of $9,086.97, an average cost of $98.70.

The New York commission proposes the publication of a civil service manual which will contain all particulars necessary to candidates applying for civil service positions such as physical standards, standards of rating mental examinations, information concerning transfers, reinstatements and promotions; information concerning periodical examinations and qualifications for positions together with weights in the examinations and other important data of value and interest to the general public. Such a publication should be decidedly popular and extremely useful to the public in connection with the work of any civil service commission.

At the end of the year 1914 the New York commission had jurisdiction over 55,570 employes divided as follows:

Unclassified	267
Exempted class	805
Competitive class	30,898
Non-competitive class	5,813
Labor class	17,787

During the year the commission certified 23,843 payrolls and vouchers.

There were 1,551 appointments from regular lists, 1,915 appointments from regular labor lists and there were 190 dismissals for cause in addition to 1,094 dismissals for cause in the labor class. In addition to this there were a large number of resignations, transfers, deaths, retirements, and so forth.

Chicago. In its 20th annual report, for the year 1914, the Chicago commission lays special stress upon the work of its efficiency division. It says,

> Except for the extra work done by the well-trained and organized efficiency division and through its co-operation with department heads and the legislative branch of the government, recognized results in municipal administration now existing would have been impossible of accomplishment. . . .
>
> It has become an integral part of the municipal government, acting as a co-ordinating force as between departments,

and with a broad and general view of the entire activities of the city administration as a whole. It is in a position to aid all branches of the service in solving problems growing out of employment.

The commission therefore recommends that in any plan of charter revision or charter building, the consideration be given to continuing and extending the work of the efficiency division or that in lieu thereof, provision be made for some other permanent body with like aims and objects.[1]

This commission outlines a scheme of employment based on eight years' careful study the essentials of which it gives as follows:

Standards of employment.

Correct classification.

Grades within classes.

Uniform salaries.

Defined lines of promotion based upon duties and responsibilities.

Correct organization, system and method.

Measured service.

Cost figuring of men, material and machinery.

Individual and group efficiency.

The report says duties, responsibility and authority definitely and permanently defined form the only rational basis for standardizing employment. These fixed work standards are necessary to classify and grade employment, to determine uniformity of titles and compensation, and for aiding to calculate individual efficiency.

> Without fixed standards it is not possible with uniform certainty to obtain a competent eligible, to measure his efficiency, to adjust his compensation or to equitably provide for his promotion or advancement.

The report shows a summary of average salaries in the clerical service for four years as follows:

1911—$1,216.

1912—$1,223.

1913—$1,222.

1914—$1,208.

The number of positions in the clerical service had increased from 1,071 in 1911 to 1,315 in 1914. This is the result of salary increase by groups within grades without examination but based on seniority and efficiency.

The certifications made in all branches of the service except the unskilled labor numbered 3,456 in 1913 as compared with 2,332 in 1912. There are now more than 16,000 employes in the classified service in Chicago.

The *Philadelphia* civil service commission during the year 1913 held 293 original entrance examinations, examined 7,157 persons; 2,945 passing, 4,212 failing. In addition to this 15 promotional examinations were held in which 178 persons participated, 116 of whom passed and 62 of whom failed. Due to the raising of the standards in the competitive class the percentage of persons passing dropped to 41.2 in 1913 as compared with 60.3 in 1912. A corresponding amount of work was done in the labor division in the city.

A material reduction in the number of provisional appointments as compared with 1912 was shown, there being only 283 in 1913 as against 605 in 1912. The average tenure of a provisional appointee was also reduced 43 per cent from 1912. This commission is an attempt to reduce the provisional, or as it is known in some services the temporary appointment abuse, is striking at one of the most common methods employed to evade civil service laws.

This commission has taken another important step in ordering that the examination papers of all applicants with the marks of the examiners thereon shall be open for public inspection; and the results in disarming the criticisms of disappointed applicants have been very gratifying.

The commission also makes public all examination questions used in prior examinations.

Los Angeles County. Prior to September 9, 1914, this commission had held three examinations. One of these was for secretary and chief examiner. After the selection of this officer rules were drafted, public hearings and conferences were held with the board of supervisors and various appointing officers and the positions in the service were classified according to duties and responsibilities.

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[1] Mayor Thompson has seriously crippled the efficiency division by reducing its force; and the question of reorganizing this service under the finance committee of the council or the city comptroller is now under discussion.

The constitutionality of the charter under which the civil service commission was working was attacked and not until these objections had been swept out of the way could the commission proceed to effective work. Rules adopted December 12, 1913, became effective January 1, 1914; and on February 27, 1914, the classification scheme was adopted and became a part of the rules.

Under the charter, the Los Angeles county commission has a bureau of efficiency in conjunction with the county auditor. After the classification scheme had been adopted this bureau of efficiency adopted uniform salaries for a large part of the positions in the service and later made up a graded salary schedule. Where stenographers had received $75, $80 and $100 per month, under the new schedule they will receive $75, $80 and $85 according to the length and character of their service.

Speaking of the salary scale the report says,

> The graduated salary scale secures ultimate uniformity for each grade without interfering seriously with present conditions. Persons now in the service will not, as a rule, be reduced. A few salaries are increased, but in the long run the schedule will effect economy.

At the time the first annual report of this commission was issued there were 3,324 officers and employes in the service, 63 in the unclassified service, 1,519 persons in the competitive class and 1,605 in the labor class.

Cleveland. A recapitulation of the work done by the Cleveland civil service commission for the years 1910–11–12 and 13 shows there have been 277 examinations held, 7,634 applications filed, 4,755 being successful and 1,959 failing in examination, 5,772 certifications for appointment and 1,924 appointments. There have been 47 trials and hearings before the commission during four years' period.

The *Cincinnati* civil service commission during the year 1913 held 112 examinations, examined 1,114 candidates, and certified 648 from eligible lists created.

The second paragraph in the report reads as follows:

> Most of the examinations held have been for positions requiring technical or manual skill and the number of applicants has fallen off compared with the number applying in 1912, because of a further appreciation of the requirements of practical tests, etc.

St. Louis. It will be interesting to watch the work of the efficiency board of St. Louis under which head this city enters the ranks of the merit system cities.

Rules adopted by the board February 2, 1915, provide for registration of names of prospective applicants. Any person registering is sent a post card notice at least two weeks prior to the date set for the examination.

The charter has not accepted the experience of some commissions in some respects, notably in clinging to the use of the rule of three, now considered unfair and a vestige of spoils methods by most administrators of civil service. The Chicago commission has operated twenty years with this rule applicable only to promotional examinations; and recently its use there has been voluntarily dropped by appointing officers on the ground that its operation worked injustice.

One year's residence in the city of St. Louis is required of each applicant.

An emergency class is created for employment not to exceed fourteen days in duration necessitated by some unforseen calamity.

The St. Louis charter contains no trial clause, but only a provision that the appointing officer who discharges an employe shall furnish written reasons therefor when requested to do so to the discharged employe. Such statements when made to discharged employes must be filed with the board.

It is interesting to cite the testimony of the Chicago commission on this point which is as follows:

> Criticism of the Illinois trial clause has been aimed largely at the cumbersome methods in vogue in the past. In nearly

twenty years' experience of the various city commissions with Section 12 (removals) of the act, the commission is convinced that the initial right of trial is essential to an active and properly standardized service, and is the underlying principle in such efficiency measures as are in force.[1]

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Some Reports on Public Charities.—Seven reports on public charities are before me—three issued by state boards and four by county or city officials. They impress one as neither better nor worse than official reports generally. One—the report of the Massachusetts board of state charity—is very close to the ideal of what such a report should be. On the other hand, illustrations may be found, in certain of the other reports, of almost every fault regarding which readers of such reports so frequently complain. The compilers of three reports (those issued by the Virginia state board, by the Pennsylvania committee on lunacy and by the Detroit poor commissioners), in their failure to print a table of contents, commit that almost unpardonable sin that so vexes the soul of the student. A long alphabetical index of topics is, of course, no substitute.

The reader of public reports may be the chairman of the appropriations committee, in the legislature or in the local body; he may be a public-spirited citizen or he may be a student in another state or city. In any case he has a right to expect that the reports he consults will show: (1) the character and scope of the work with which the office is charged, (2) a picture, statistical and otherwise, showing the way in which that work is done—a motion picture usually, for the events of 365 days are to be presented in so far as they are significant.

In addition, the technique of arrangement, indexing, etc., must be such that the reader, if he wishes, can easily skim over the whole so as to pick out the particular portions he wishes to examine carefully.

It is because the Massachusetts report satisfies these requirements that it is singled out for the praise it so thoroughly deserves. Its first few pages describe the board's various functions, usually with reference to the empowering statute.

The work of the board along each of its lines is presented discursively and usually statistically, also. The institutional costs —on a weekly per capita basis—are presented with admirable fullness and clearness. Thus we learn that one of the state schools for boys has a per capita cost that is 73 cents larger than the other ($2.94 as compared with $2.21). But one is not obliged to guess at the reason. Supplementary tables show that this surplus cost is chiefly the result of the much higher per capita cost for "farm, stable, and grounds" and "repairs." The farm payroll in the first school proves to have three times as many names on it as in the other. The investigator's search is thus directed immediately to the spot upon which his further inquiries should center. This is, of course, merely good cost accounting, but it is not often that illustrations of it are found in reports on public charities.

Covering 405 pages of the Massachusetts report, facts and figures are presented regarding the management and finances of 702 of the 744 charitable corporations of the state that are exempt from taxation. This is a remarkable exhibit. On a uniform basis there is shown, for each organization, its officers, its purpose, the number of its paid workers and the number of its beneficiaries. Most interesting of all—and most difficult to get—are the statements of receipts and disbursements—the former always showing the following important items separately when they exist:

From beneficiaries
Subscriptions and donations
Income from investments
Fairs and entertainments

The results of almshouse inspection are well summarized in the 93 pages given to that subject, and the recommendations made to the overseers in a score or two of towns are printed *seriatim*, this publicity being evidently counted on to assist in obtaining compliance.

The report of the Pennsylvania board is by no means the worst of its class. It is only by contrast with the Massachusetts report that it suffers. It is loosely edited, however, and badly printed, its table of contents is quite inadequate—witness two addresses, delivered by the president of the board, that are entered in the table of contents without their titles being shown—merely "Address of Francis J. Torrance," etc. In one of these addresses there is mention of a law enacted during the year covered by the report, giving the state board power to enforce the recommendations it makes to local officials. Explanation of the requirements of this important law appear nowhere else; and it is, of course, very nearly lost, buried thus in the midst of this address, near the center of the volume.

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[1] R. E. Blackwood, Secretary, Chicago and Illinois Civil Service Reform Association.

Nevertheless the reader can get a fairly correct conception of Pennsylvania's public charities by studying this report. He will, of course, be impressed with the 13 pages that list 270 private institutions with the amounts of the subsidies they receive from the state. Thirty years ago but 22 instead of 270 private agencies were being subsidized and the amount granted was $757,000 instead of $8,000,000.

Full statistics are given covering the population of institutions, criminal records, penitentiaries, almshouses and outdoor relief, besides discursive statistical and financial reports concerning each of the state institutions. An imposing series of tables shows for all hospitals and "Homes"—private as well as public—their classified receipts and expenditures and the number of their beneficiary patients.

Aside from its failure to provide a table of contents, the Virginia state board report for 1913–14 is a very creditable presentation of an activity for which the state pays but $7,151. On that appropriation the board is given the large task of inspecting all public and private charitable and correctional institutions in the state. The 60 pages, devoted to the private charities, are in effect a charities directory of the state. The officers of each society are shown and a summarized financial statement given.

The extensive charities of Cook County, Ill. (including the city of Chicago) are well described in the "Charity service reports" issued by the county board for the year 1913. With Alexander A. McCormick as president, there has been a socializing of the board's manifold activities that has been watched with great interest, the country over. Indicative of the spirit referred to is the fact, mentioned in this volume, that to assist in the selection of the man who was to supervise the new "funds to parents" law a special committee of social workers was called in, of whom Jane Addams was one. The following, taken from Mr. McCormick's annual message, shows both the character and the magnitude of the work undertaken:

> The government of Cook County was last year required by law to house, feed and supply medical aid and treatment to about 34,000 sick people, 3,000 irresponsible, incurable, or infirm paupers, and 1,000 tuberculous patients; to give food, clothing and coal to about 200,000 persons; to care for 10,587 delinquent and dependent children; . . . and bury at public expense 978 friendless and pauper dead. . . . It compelled about 5,500 defendants to support their wives, children and near relations; gathered in and cared for 2,334 insane patients, of whom 569 were discharged, 39 died, and 1,766 were committed to state institutions, and gave $165,000 in pensions to 350 indigent mothers for the support of 1,125 children. It . . . housed, fed and cared for about 11,000 prisoners in the county jail, . . . and for 4,000 boys and girls in the juvenile detention home and 2,400 insane in the detention hospital.

The report of the supervisors of Baltimore's charities does not do justice to the apparently good work that is being done, in certain, at least, of the eight departments the supervisors have in their charge. These departments relate to the indigent aged and infirm, the indigent sick, the indigent insane, the dependent children, the temporary care of homeless men, the transportation of non-resident poor to their homes, the dependent blind, and the temporary care of wayward women.

The chief weakness of the report is a looseness of construction, which makes its meaning frequently obscure. For example, by close examination and comparison of the figures reported on four different pages, the reader is able to conclude that the "City detention hospital," the "City reception hospital" and the "Reception hospital for the insane" are one and the same. Again, on page 61, a series of tables begins, lettered A to J, and preceded by the general heading "Statistics Bay View hospital and infirmary." At the end of this (page 70) a new series starts, Tables I to VII, preceded by a heading in identical type with the first, reading "Statistical report." Presumably this second series refers also to the two institutions named in the first heading; but the reader should not be obliged to guess at such things: And why two series of tables, for both are statistical reports?

The reports of the superintendents of the poor for Wayne County, Michigan, and for the board of poor commissioners of Detroit, which is located in Wayne County, are, in the main, of the old-fashioned type. They show scarcely any trace of the modern point of view in regard to the problems involved in the care of the poor. Pictures of the seven superintendents are printed as a frontispiece of the County report. The five-page report of the president of the group is almost exclusively a recital of changes in the material equipment of the county buildings—ventilating fans, hydrants, etc. The statistical classifications are, most of them, wooden or even worse. Pages are given over to groupings and details that are quite meaningless.

The report for the city of Detroit (1913–1914) has no table of contents. Its discursive portions are hardly more than paragraph statements of statistics. The statistics themselves are very blind—outdoor relief and institutional relief, in one table, being hopelessly jumbled together. In another table we are given the important information that the 10 Hungarian cases who were given outdoor relief, received one half ton of hard coal and 21 tons of soft coal, while the three Swiss cases received their coal just the other way round—six and a half tons of hard coal and no soft coal whatever!

H. S. F.

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Public Utilities.—*Manchester's Tramways Department.* The passenger transportation problem in the city of Manchester has been worked out in a carefully prepared, well illustrated pamphlet of over 140 pages, issued as the report of the subcommittee of the tramways department. The report is a detailed study of Manchester's transit problems. Certain items are of general interest here.

The report shows that the riding habit is as contagious in the United Kingdom as in the United States. Thus from 1904 to 1913 the number of journeys per head of population on the tramway systems increased as follows, for the designated cities: in Manchester, 151 to 201; Glasgow, 189 to 271; Leeds, 136 to 179; Sheffield, 147 to 207; Nottingham, 113 to 146. Charts are submitted to show that the journeys per head of population increase much more rapidly than the population.

In view of the fact that the "jitney" buses are growing apace in all sections of the United States, it is of peculiar interest to note that the report finds that a motor bus service of twenty seconds in fair weather and ten seconds in inclement weather (when only the inside seats could be occupied) would be necessary to take the place of the tram car service on the Rochdale railroad where one car in every forty seconds is now ample. The report finds that the motor bus is destined to play a large part in the future, particularly in supplementing tramway service in many directions "and particularly in the outlying and thinly populated districts where the extension of the tramway system is rendered financially impossible owing to the heavy outlay in permanent-way construction."

The development of trackless trolley cars is noted with the observation that while "they lack the great elasticity as to routes which the motor bus provides, there are circumstances which may warrant their introduction into outlying areas, especially if the operating costs continue to be lower than those of the bus, which seems likely to be the case."

Manchester's tramway system now pays annually $500,000 in relief of the rates, over $160,000 for street repair and nearly $150,000 per annum for keeping in repair practically one-half the width of the principal highways of the city. "If the system were operated by motor buses the financial benefits to the city in respect to rates and maintenance of roads would disappear, and the large number of 'buses' required to meet the traffic demands would add to the cost of street maintenance, and thus increase the expenditure of the Highways Department."

"*The Failure of Regulation*" is the title of a ninety-eight page pamphlet by Daniel W. Doan, City Attorney of Milwaukee, published by the Socialist party of the United States, for sale at twenty-five cents. The book is essentially a factual study of "the failure" of the Wisconsin railroad commission.

That rates are not fixed "scientifically" by the commission is evidenced, to the author's satisfaction, in the fact that the Wisconsin railroad commission fixed the maximum passenger fare at two and one-half cents per mile in the state, provided that five-hundred-mile books should be sold at two cents per mile. The following legislature reduced the passenger rates, thus fixed, to a universal rate of two cents per mile, and "the railways of Wisconsin have made a greater profit under the two cent passenger rate than they did under the three cent or two and one-half cent rate, much to the chagrin of the advocates of scientific regulation." The "famous, or infamous," case of the city of Milwaukee versus the Milwaukee electric railway and light company is given as another evidence of the inability of the commission to obtain and maintain adequate service standards. Two or three cases are put on record as showing where the commission changed its "scientific" rates under a public outburst against them.

Evidence is submitted to show that the capitalists like the law but that the law has failed as an agency of the people. In substance eight reasons are given for its failure: (1) regulation has failed elsewhere wherever tried; (2) all systems of regulation are constantly undergoing changes until abandoned,—the systems used in foreign countries are presented to substantiate this claim as also the large number of amendments to the interstate commerce act and the large number to the Wisconsin statute, as many as thirty-five amending bills to that statute having been introduced in the session of 1913 alone; (3) regulation means needless duplication, the officers of the corporation and the commission doing the same work; (4) it is utterly impossible to ascertain the "true facts concerning the inside working of any gigantic business institution"; (5) "unbearable delays are part and parcel of such a system," the Wisconsin system alone having the inner workings of about 1,300 institutions to look after; (6) material reduction in rates made by the commissions means poor service because no army of inspectors can keep up service while the pressure to keep up dividends is always sufficiently heavy to warrant lowering service standards; (7) effective regulation can be prevented by the threat of capitalists to withdraw or to refuse to invest further capital in the business,—the author quotes from commissioners, including the Interstate Commerce Commission, to show that this is no small power in the hands of utility owners and other capitalists; and finally the author urged that (8) corporations do and ever will control or influence the commissioners by influencing appointments, by corrupting the regulators or by controlling the public press.

Tramway Employes. A report upon the wages and hours of labor of tramway employes in Europe made by W. D. Mahon and L. D. Bland will be found in the *American Federationist* of December, 1914. The comparison of European with American wages for street railway workers should be studied side by side with a comparison of wages between the workers in other fields in Europe with workers in other fields in the United States. This is not done in the report and hence its conclusions and comparative tables are misleading. The report assumes that the cost of living in the various parts of the United States is 25–65 per cent higher than it is in various parts of western Europe, whereas "the highest wage paid any body of tramway workers in Europe is safely 100 per cent less than the rate paid in this country in the same occupation, and we found this to be the fact both on private and municipal systems." The latter statement is, of course, mathematically impossible, unless the workers in Europe are paid absolutely nothing. The writers probably mean that wages in this country are 100 per cent more than those in Europe, which is the same as saying that wages in Europe are 50 per cent less than those in the United States. The report concludes with the statement that trade unions are necessary to raise wages "whether dealing with a municipality or a private company."

Solidarity of Utility Interests. A couple of lectures given at various eastern universities during the early part of 1915 by Director Morris Llewellyn Cooke, of the Philadelphia department of public works have been issued in pamphlet form, giving the director's "comments on the changing attitude of American cities toward the utility problem." It is essentially a survey of the titanic problems confronting any public official who is desirous of securing reasonable rates and service standards from the city's serving companies. The addresses point out, among other things, that there is a "unity of policy and action among private interests in the utility field," through which the respective companies in the gas, water, electric and other utilities assist one another and create, in effect, a nation-wide solidarity through which they uphold prices and "provide for the public almost ready made, not only securities but public opinion, laws, machinery and even the technical experts." The one remedy, concludes the director, is "publicity—incessant and relentless." "This must provide open and fair bookkeeping, with inventories made on a basis comparable with those used in private business and a uniform system of cost accounting, tying in with the general books and including the smallest details of the enterprise." The only avenue through which cities can get a fighting advantage equal to that accruing to the companies through solidarity of their interests is through co-operation with the utilities bureau,[1] a bureau organized at the conference of American mayors, held in Philadelphia in the autumn of 1914, for the express purpose of giving to all public officials and interested citizens an agency for unity of action in securing facts, collecting data, and securing experts.[2]

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Taxation Reports.—*North Dakota.* The State Tax Association of North Dakota has issued Nos. 8 and 9 of its bulletins to taxpayers.[3] Number 8 presents the details of the state tax levies since 1890, and compares the actual annual total with the constitutional limit. This limit has been exceeded in every year since 1901 by amounts ranging from 1.2 mills in 1901 to .2 mills in 1913.

Bulletin No. 9 summarizes the debt history of the city of Grand Forks, North Dakota. The total bonded debt issued for improvements from the date of incorporation to January 1, 1915, was $415,000; but of this amount, $220,000 had been refunded and only $49,000 had been paid when due. The net indebtedness of the city on January 1, 1915, was therefore $586,000, with maturities ranging from 1917 to 1934. There is a very fair prospect that further refunding will be required, as only the last three issues, aggregating $92,000, are arranged upon the serial plan. Nothing is said of the condition of the sinking funds, but past experience is certainly conclusive in favor of further extensions of loans.

The most striking instance of waste is in the case of a steam fire engine, bought in 1882. It was paid for by an issue of $6,000, at 7 per cent, due in 1897. Of this amount, $5,000 were refunded for twenty years at 6 per cent. The total cost of the engine will be $18,300—original cost plus interest for thirty-five years—of which $5,000 principal is still unpaid. The engine went to the scrap heap ten years ago. Such inherent capacity for financial stupidity and mismanagement will make some of the larger cities look sharply to their laurels.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 751, and vol. iv, p. 91.

[2] From Dr. Clyde L. King, University of Pennsylvania.

[3] North Dakota State Tax Association, Bulletin No. 8, December 1914; No. 9, January 1915.

Pittsburgh. The Pittsburgh chamber of commerce has issued in pamphlet form a series of three addresses given before it by officials connected with the administration of finances in the city, the county, and the public school system.[1] These addresses were evidently planned as a means of enlightenment upon the subject of budget-making, and as a defense of the expenditures of the several authorities. In general they throw but little light upon the first of these points, though the county comptroller rather frankly admitted that he preferred his own rule of thumb methods to those suggested by the New York bureau of municipal research, which had been employed to overhaul the budget system. More attention was given to the defense of the tax levies and of the present volume of expenditures. Emphasis was laid upon the numerous lines of activity that had been begun by the city, the county and the school board, and the chamber was assured by all of the speakers that retrenchment meant sacrifice of some of these desirable and convenient things. There was no inclination to discuss, or even to recognize, the other possible alternative, the introduction of sound business methods in public administration, through which the people might conceivably get the same return for much less money than is now being spent.

Virginia. A joint committee on tax revision, authorized by the Virginia general assembly of 1914, has issued an extensive report, including the results of a detailed study of existing methods of taxation in Virginia, with recommendations and a series of bills to carry out its recommendations. Two alternative plans are presented. One recommended by seven members of the joint committee provides for a permanent salaried state tax commission, with powers similar to those of tax commissions established in other states. The other plan, recommended by three members of the committee provides for the partial segregation of state from local sources of revenue, and proposes an *ex-officio* state board of taxation.

Nebraska. A special commission on revenue and taxation, authorized by the Nebraska legislation in 1913, has submitted its report. This report presents a careful study of the present tax situation in Nebraska, and of methods of taxation and tax administration in other states. The recommendations include the creation of a permanent state tax commission, the abolition of precinct assessors and certain changes in the method of assessing corporations as can be made under the existing constitutional restrictions. Further recommendations are proposed in case of the adoption of a constitutional amendment submitted to the voters in November, 1914, to enlarge the powers of the legislature over taxation.

Mountain and Pacific States. Part V of the report of the United States commissioner of corporations covers the Mountain and Pacific states. Most of the state constitutions in this group of states contain detailed provisions in regard to taxation, making constitutional amendments necessary to bring about even minor changes in the system of taxation or its administration. Nevada and New Mexico depend almost entirely on the general property tax. Other states in this group employ special taxes to a limited degree, except in California, which separates the sources of state and local revenue, and exempts mortgages from taxation.

Proceedings of the National Tax Association. This volume contains the papers and addresses at the eighth annual conference on taxation, which was held at Denver in September, 1914. Of especial importance to those interested in municipal government are the papers on public expenditures, and on the taxation of land values in western Canada.

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[1] The Chamber of Commerce, "Pittsburgh's Taxation, City, County, Education," pp. 46.

Minneapolis School Survey.—The bureau of municipal research of the Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association has completed an important piece of constructive work. In October, 1914, the board of education requested the bureau to make a study of the business administration of the public schools. The expansion of the educational system in Minneapolis has been so rapid during recent years that it had outstripped the business organization provided to meet its needs. Appreciating this fact, the board asked for the survey as the first step toward remedying the situation and providing machinery for efficient administration of its business affairs both now and in the future.

The survey included studies of the operation, maintenance and construction of buildings, of the purchase, storage and distribution of supplies and of the handling of the accounts of the board. Before the report was submitted to the board of education, it was considered and approved by the municipal research committee of the Civic and Commerce Association, a committee composed of representative business men who direct the policy of the bureau of municipal research.

The main recommendations of the report were: (a) reorganization of the business department creating several new positions and doing away with many minor positions, (b) a modern budget system for controlling expenditures, (c) job costs for repairs as a basis for the economical handling of the repair force, (d) standardization of supplies to facilitate purchasing, (e) stores accounting to enable the board to keep a close check on the distribution of supplies, and (f) reorganization of the accounting procedure so that the records will show at all times the exact financial status of the board.

The board of education promptly accepted the report as a working basis for the reorganization of the business department and requested the bureau of municipal research to assist the new business executive in working out the details of the suggested program.

The bureau has also issued in pamphlet form a statement on the bonded indebtedness of Minneapolis. It was prepared for the use of the state legislators in considering requests for bond issues now before the legislature. The subject material included shows the comprehensiveness of the statement. The tables give the bonded indebtedness of the city by purpose for which it was incurred from 1890 to 1915, the debt limitation on a 10 per cent basis (legal) and on a 7 per cent basis (New York and Massachusetts forbid their banks to invest in bonds of municipalities whose debt is above 7 per cent), statements of the sinking funds and sinking fund investments, etc., and a statement showing the advantages of the serial bond method over the sinking fund installment method. The pamphlet represents the most complete statement ever presented to the legislature on the fiscal situation of Minneapolis.

The city accounting procedure is being reorganized by the bureau of municipal research at the request of the comptroller. The new system of fund accounting installed January 1, 1915 makes it possible for the comptroller to keep city officials currently informed of the unencumbered balances of their appropriations.[1]

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The Tenement House Code of Cleveland, Ohio.—The new housing code which went into effect on June 1, 1915, in Cleveland, is similar to many of the housing laws of the large cities of the country. Evidences of compromise are present yet they are no worse than housing reformers elsewhere have been forced to accept. Of the new features, two of minor importance, but, nevertheless, worth while, attempt to standardize artificial lighting of halls by requiring one-half watt per square foot of floor area and to require gas stoves to be connected with flues. The provision that all tenements must take out a license is also a step in the right direction, in that it not only requires the conductor of such a building to seek a permit, but the fee charged, though small, helps to place the burden of cost on those who, for added profit, bring new and burdensome problems to the community.

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[1] F. S. Staley.

Another new feature is the "Sunlight schedule" designed to regulate the width and depth of courts and yards. It is of doubtful practicality and indicates that a new attempt has been made to get away from beaten paths without carefully checking up its possibilities. Stripped of its verbiage, yards on interior lots need only be ten feet deep and on corner lots, eight feet, if the builder is shrewd enough to have a wing on the rear of his main building not over twenty (20) feet in height. If the builder wishes to set his building back from the lot line of a side street, he must make his side yard, in width, equal $^1/_6$ the height of his building. Just the particular reason for requiring a building 48 feet high to set back 8 feet from the building line (if the owner wishes to set back at all) when running parallel to a side street 40 feet in width, is hard to determine. Yet this peculiar phrasing would require such an absurdity.

Perhaps the most uncertain feature of this new code is its interpretation in the light of its definitions. Unfortunately, few who draft housing laws realize the importance of making definitions really define the sense in which they intend their phraseology to be interpreted. For example, a tenement, in this code, is not only the home of three or more families but also any single dwelling occupied by only one family if it is one of a row of houses. By virtue of being a tenement it then comes under the same requirements as for tenements occupied by many families. Thus it must have a fire-proof passageway, at least eight feet high and five feet wide, extending from the rear yard to the street. If such dwelling-tenement has a stairway to the cellar such must be surrounded by masonry and have self-closing fire-proof doors. The actual effect of these and other similar regulations will be to force the workingmen into real tenements, or to squeeze them for higher rents because of the added cost put upon the construction of row houses.

The definition of a court; viz.: an open space bounded on one or more sides by the walls of a tenement, etc., applied to the limitation put upon the depth would obligate an owner when constructing an open court to make its length at least 1½ times its width.

These defects, however, can easily be remedied and do not obscure the fact that Cleveland has placed herself among the more progressive cities in the country in establishing a control over housing evils that annually yield their crop of anaemic human weaklings who either ultimately succumb to disease or who become undesirable citizens.[1]

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Annual Reports.—The annual reports for the city of Philadelphia for the year 1913 have been issued in three volumes of moderate size. The absence of thick bulky and ponderous volumes of unwieldy size and weight is welcome. One is tempted to believe there was some careful editorial work performed in the preparation of the 1913 reports. The number of pages for the year 1912 was approximately 3,000, and for the year 1913 only 1,700. The reports of the art jury, the board of recreation, and the controller were published separately in 1913; but these would not account for the difference of 1,300 pages. The usefulness and appearance of the volumes has been largely increased. The use of a dull finished paper instead of the hard glazed paper should find favor with the publishers of municipal documents and will call forth the hearty thanks of those who consult these and similar reports.

The year book of the city of Easton, Pennsylvania, for the year 1913 contains the messages of the mayor, the statement of the controller, and the departmental reports. The volume is noted because it is one of a series issued by the city of Easton over a long period of years. The contents are not indexed, and the volumes have varied slightly in size, but on the whole they represent a policy with respect to the printing of public documents that many cities might well adopt. Series such as that to which this volume belong are becoming of increasing value to the student of municipal government, values to which cities may well contribute by the records of their work, and experience.

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[1] Bernard J. Newman, executive secretary, Philadelphia Housing Commission.

Another series of reports of narrower scope but indicative of a similar disposition is that of the city of Mount Vernon, New York, containing the annual report of the controller. There are eighteen volumes in this series to date.[1]

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Crime in Chicago.—The report of the Chicago Criminal Committee on Crime, established in May, 1914, has been published under date of March 22, 1915. Alderman C. E. Merriam was chairman of the Committee. The report includes a brief introduction, summaries of findings and recommendations, and detailed reports by Miss Edith Abbott, on Criminal Statistics; by Professor Robert H. Gault, on Underlying Causes and Practical Methods of Preventing Crime; and by M. L. Davies and Fletcher Dolyns, giving a Description and Analysis of Criminal Conditions.

As noted in connection with reports of other surveys, this report also gives in the summaries extended lists of items, in which there is nothing to indicate the fundamental and general from matters of relative detail. There are 37 findings and 45 recommendations. The more significant findings appear to be: that the treatment of crime in Chicago is totally inadequate; the amount of crime is increasing; the present machinery catches and punishes poor, petty and occasional criminals; and that police organization and methods are wholly inadequate. There are recommendations for a thorough overhauling of police methods, an investigation of court practice and procedure, and the establishment of a farm colony in connection with the house of correction.

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Denver Survey. — The New York bureau of municipal research has issued a report on a survey of certain departments of the city and county of Denver, prepared for the Colorado taxpayer's protective league. This is a volume of 583 pages, dealing mainly with the departments of social welfare, safety, property, improvements and finance. An examination of the report shows that it is the result of an intensive study of the fields covered. But the form of publication makes it difficult to learn the main conclusions. It is rather a series of sectional reports, with no attempt at a general summary; while the summaries of recommendations in each section are lengthy lists of items, many of which are matters of minor detail.

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St. Louis Civic League.—The Year Book of the Civic League of St. Louis presents a brief summary of the work of the League for the year 1914–15. This 16-page pamphlet is likely to be more effective than many of the bulky reports of municipal surveys in other cities.

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County Affairs. —*County Government in New York.* The proceedings of the first conference for better County Government, held at Schenectady, N. Y., in November, 1914, have been published in a pamphlet of 75 pages. This includes discussions of county finances, highway administration, and the proposed county manager plan. There is a brief alphabetical index; but the usefulness of the report is decreased by the lack of a table of contents.

County Archives in Illinois. The Illinois State Historical Library has published a pamphlet on County Archives in Illinois, by Theodore C. Pease of the University of Illinois. This is a general discussion, which will appear as the introduction to a volume of the Illinois Historical Collections, containing the results of a detailed survey of the archives in the several counties in Illinois.

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Massachusetts Fire Manual. — The Massachusetts civil service commission has recently issued a one hundred page manual of fire department equipment and practice for the use of applicants for appointment. The commission examines applicants on their knowledge of the duties of the position sought by them and this manual contains a clear exposition of the equipment and organization of the five departments of the state. Although most civil service examining bodies have discontinued the examination of applicants for appointment on uniformed police or fire forces on their knowledge of the duties to be performed by them after appointment, this manual will be found helpful in those jurisdictions in which such examinations are still held.[1]

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[1] Russell M. Story, University of Illinois.

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"Standards for Gas Service" is the title of the third edition of a report by similar titles put out by the National Bureau of Standards, of which Mr. S. W. Stratton is director. This third edition was issued March 10, 1915, and supersedes the edition of October 1, 1913, entitled "Standard Regulations for Manufactured Gas and Gas Service," and the first edition, issued April 1, 1912, entitled "State and Municipal Regulation for the Quality, Distribution and Testing of Illuminating Gas."

Part I of this new edition is devoted to a discussion of technical specifications, such as the standards for candlepower, heating value, heating value regulations, candlepower requirements, requirements as to the purity of gas, gas pressure and meters and meter testing. Part II is devoted to the enforcement of technical regulations. Part III deals with proposed forms for regulations. Part IV summarizes the laws in effect. The fifth part is devoted to the methods of manufacturing the different kinds of gas, such as coal gas, carburetted water gas, mixed gas, oil gas, etc.

The pamphlet is of inestimable value to all who are interested in the technical aspect of gas manufacturing or interested in the public regulation of gas companies. Its proposed city ordinance is, however, in no sense an adequate ordinance. It contains many questionable provisions, such as that the city council must approve the mayor's appointment of gas inspector, and that the deputies and assistants appointed by the inspector must likewise receive the approval of the city council. As it is in the city council that "untoward corporate control" usually rests, it would seem to the author that approval by the city council presents but another avenue through which efficient regulation can be prevented.[1]

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Public Abattoirs in the United Kingdom.—R. Stephen Ayling, consulting architect to the model abattoir society, has published a special report on public abattoirs in England. The conclusions are based on the answers to some twenty-two inquiries addressed to the local authorities operating the one hundred and sixty or more public abattoirs in the United Kingdom. Mr. Ayling found that the total cost of erecting municipal abattoirs in sixty-four towns, having an aggregate population of over four and one-half millions, is equivalent to but 3s. 1d. per unit of the population served. The modern public slaughterhouse at Edinburgh cost 7s. 9d. It appears that representatives of the meat trade put the cost of high-class municipal abattoirs at from 10s. to 15s. per capita. This Mr. Ayling concludes is unduly large. Out of fifty-seven replies, fifty-one stated that the municipal abattoir has had the effect of decreasing the sale of foreign meat and increasing the amount of domestic meat sold, while five say that it has had the effect of increasing the sale of foreign meats. The abattoirs have, as a rule, had receipts in excess of expenditures. The sanitary and other conditions prevailing in the municipal abattoirs were much better than those that prevailed in private abattoirs.

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Police Ordinances of Chicago. Chicago has published a well-indexed 200-page volume of pocket size, containing in brief non-technical language the essential provisions and citations of the ordinances of the city which have a penal sanction. This reference book is useful for citizens and teachers in Chicago, but of little value to persons outside of that city.

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The University of Texas is issuing a number of useful bulletins on municipal affairs. A municipal research series includes a model charter and a model civil service code for Texas cities. Other pamphlets discuss the city manager plan, and the results of a student survey of Austin, Texas. A quarterly, called *Texas Municipalities*, is also issued for the League of Texas Municipalities.

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[1] Leonhard Felix Fuld, New York.

[1] From Dr. Clyde Lyndon King.

*

An Apology is due to City Clerk Brown of Winnipeg, Manitoba, for attributing to someone else the excellent work he did in compiling the Winnipeg *Municipal Manual*, noticed on page 351 of our April issue. On the title page of the manual it is stated that it is compiled by the city clerk, but no name is given. Later in the book Mr. Peterson's name appears as secretary of the Board of Control, and the name of the city clerk does not appear until some pages later where it is given in a list of other officials, so that it was inadvertantly overlooked.

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By F. W. Powell
Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City

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Pennsylvania. Statutes. An Act to authorize the regulation of the location, size and use of buildings in cities of the first class.

The Stern bill, introduced March 16, 1915, and signed by Governor Brumbaugh in May. This Act gives to Philadelphia unlimited powers to regulate the location, size and use of buildings. An early conference is announced at which the proposed regulations will be discussed by representatives of the Bureau of Building Inspection, the Survey Bureau, having in charge the planning of the city; the Comprehensive Plans Committee, the Art Jury, the Fire Bureau, the City Parks Association and the Fairmount Park Commission. Not only will the city have power of control over the character of buildings, but it may say what types of buildings may or may not be constructed in various sections. It may dictate that a building erected for one purpose cannot be used for another without its reconstruction or alteration as dictated by the duly constituted authorities. It gives to the Fairmount Park Commission the architectural supervision and the right to say what buildings may or may not be constructed within 200 feet of any park, parkway or other public place under its care or management.

For many years there has been carried on a series of discussions of the need for better control of the character of buildings erected in different sections. Boston exercises a limited jurisdiction in the control of the erection of new buildings and their uses, but the regulations are not so drastic as the powers conferred upon cities of the first class in Pennsylvania. The act is very short and decisive in its stipulation and is as follows: "That for the purpose of promoting the public health, safety, order and general welfare cities of the first class may regulate the location, size and use of buildings therein and may make different regulations for different districts thereof, and in any city in which there is a commission for the care of a public park the said park commission of any city of the first class may make such regulations as to the location, size and use of buildings and portion of which shall come within 200 feet of any park, parkway, playground or other public place under its care or management, and upon their approval by the councils of such city said regulations shall have the same effect as if originally made by said councils."

See also the Penn. Act described under Housing.

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Municipal Voters' League of Chicago.

Under the caption "A Notable Civic Organization" the New York Evening Post of April 24, 1915, prints an appreciative editorial of about 1,000 words about the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago.

Price, Richard R. Aims and purposes of the League of Minnesota municipalities.

Typewritten copy only seen. Paper was read on Feb. 19 before the Minn. Surveyors and Engineers Soc'y.

County Government

New York City. Bureau of Municipal Investigation and Statistics. Report upon the maintenance of county offices in the City of New York. Apr., 1915. 31 pp. 4°.

Based upon an analysis of the appropriations and payrolls of the counties of New York, Bronx, Kings, Queens and Richmond for the years 1911 to 1915.

Sawyer, Rollin A., Jr. List of works on county government. (New York Public Library Bull. May, 1915, p. 433–70.)

Courts

American Judicature Society. Bull. 8. The branch court of conciliation of the municipal court of Cleveland; the address by Judge Manuel Levine. The small claims branch of the municipal court of Chicago; by Herbert Harley. April, 1915. 49 pp. 8°.

——. Second draft of so much of the metropolitan court act as relates to the selection and retirement of judges. Apr., 1915. 127 pp. 4°. (Bull. 4a.)

Baer, David A. Justice for the small man. A modern municipal court in operation. (Century. May, 1915, p. 144–8.)

Municipal court of the District of Columbia.

Belden, Evelina. The boys' court of Chicago: a record of six months' work. (Amer. Journ. Sociology. May, 1915, p. 731–44.)

Crime

Chicago, Ill. Committee on Crime. Rept. of the city council committee on crime. Mch. 22, 1915. 196 pp. 8°.

Excess Condemnation

Massachusetts. Special Commission on uniform methods and procedure for taking land for public purposes. Report. 1915. 70 pp. (House doc. 1857, 1915.)

On May 19, 1915, Massachusttts passed "An Act relative to the taking of land by cities and towns for municipal purposes." (Gen. Acts, 1915; chap. 263.)

Finance

Minneapolis, Minn. City Statistician. Comparative strength and cost of fire department and of police department for the year 1914 in the sixty leading cities of the United States. Broadside. 1915.

New York City. Bureau of Municipal Investigation and Statistics. Report upon the cost to the City of New York of its contributions for charitable purposes and upon the distribution and growth of such contributions during the ten-year period ending Dec. 31, 1913. Mch., 1915. 32 pp. 8°.

Rompel. Städtische Finanz Probleme. (Leitschr. für Kommunalwissensch. Jahrg. 1, 1914–15; p. 177–182. With bibliogr.)

Fire Departments

Anon. Civil service in the fire department. 3,000 words. (Fire Engineer. Feb., 1915.)

Discussion of advantages and disadvantages, with examples of both.

Robertson, George M. Organization and management of a fire department in small cities. 3,500 words. (Pacific Municipalities. Jan., 1915.)

Author is engineer of the Board of Fire Underwriters of the Pacific.

Fire Prevention

New York City. Fire Prevention Bureau. Fire prevention lessons for use in the schools of New York City. 1915. 30 pp. Illus.

Wisconsin. Fire Marshal's Dept. Clean up precautions. Circular, Apr. 23, 1915.

Woodward, R. B. How a Chamber of Commerce makes children factors in fire prevention. 2,000 words. Illus. (American City. Feb., 1915.)

Description of work carried on successfully at Rochester, N. Y.

Fire Waste

Anon. Fire losses of 1914. 2,000 words. (Fire Engineer. Mch., 1915.)

Table showing increase over the average for past 38 years; monthly fire loss for 1914; most important fires during year.

Harrington, George. Report of President Harrington of the Georgia Fire Prevention Society. Jan. 28, 1915. 11 pp.

"It is greatly to be regretted that every discussion of fire waste as yet must be coupled with the insurance business, and that it should be regarded with an insurance consciousness. We hope that the day may come when this will be a civic problem . . ." (p. 3.)

Government

Chicago, Ill. Bureau of Public Efficiency. The nineteen local governments of Chicago. ed. 2. Mch., 1915. 137 pp. charts.

Citizens' Bureau of Municipal Efficiency, Milwaukee, Wis. A report to the public. Mch., 1915. 18 (1) pp.

An organization chart of the city government of Milwaukee, and a useful classified cost comparison of the governments of Buffalo, Cleveland, Detroit and Milwaukee.

CITY MANAGER PLAN

James, Herman G. Origin and theory of the city manager plan. (Pacific Municipalities. May, 1915, p. 215–217.)

Housing

Adams, Thomas. Housing and town planning in Canada. 2,500 words. (Amer. City. Apr., 1915.)

Bashore, H. B. Overcrowding and defective housing in the rural districts. New York: Wiley & Sons, 1915. 3 p. l., ix—xi, 13–92 p. Illus. 12°.

Brown, Reginald. Urban and rural housing. (The Surveyor and Municipal and County Engr. Apr. 30, 1915, p. 562–63.)

Chart, D. A. Unskilled labour in Dublin; its housing and living conditions. (Journ. Stat. and Soc. Inquiry Socy. of Ireland. Dec., 1914, p. 160–87.)

Herbst. Beseitigung der Wohnungsnot in den mittleren und kleinen Städten Ostpreusens, insbesondere Schaffung von Arbeiterwohnungen. (Zeitschr. für Kommunalwissensch. März, 1915, p. 379–86.)

Kuttelwascher, Hans. Die Mietkasernen in den österreichischen Städten. (Austria. Stat. Zentr.-Kommission. Stat. Monatschrift. N. F. Jahrg. 19 (1914), p. 724–39.)

London County Council. Housing of the Working Classes Committee. Report on housing accommodation in London in 1913. (London Municipal Notes. Mch.–Apr., 1915, p. 65–69.)

Millin, S. Shannon. Slums: a sociological retrospect of the city of Dublin. (Journ. Stat. and Soc. Inquiry Socy. of Ireland. Dec., 1914, p. 130–59.)

Morris, Percy. Housing and town planning in the Doncaster coal fields. (Journ. Institution of County and Municip. Engrs. Mch., 1915. 3,500 words. Illus.)

Pennsylvania. Statutes. An Act to protect the public health and safety by regulating the erection, alteration, repair, use, occupancy, maintenance, sanitation and condemnation of dwellings, rooming-houses and tenements, etc., in cities of the first class. 1915.

The bill was in the hands of the governor when this copy went to press. The Act further creates a Division of Housing and Sanitation to enforce the regulations governing housing conditions. See also the Penn. Act described under City Planning.

Searles-Wood, H. D. Housing of the agricultural labourer. (Journal Royal Sanitary Institute. Feb., 1915, p. 29–37.)

United States Labor Statistics Bureau. Government aid to home-owning and housing of working people in foreign countries. 1915. 451 pp. (Bull. 158. Misc. ser. 5.)

Jersey City, N. J.

Lane, F. Van Z. $50,000,000 more ratables for Jersey City. Preliminary rept. to Jersey City Chamber of Commerce on an industrial development r. r. for Jersey City. Jan., 1915. 27 pp. 1 map.

Jitney Bus

Anon. The jitney bus. (Electric Rwy. Journ. May 1, 1915, p. 861–2.)

——. The jitney bus. Further city and state legislative progress recorded. (Electric Rwy. Journ. May 8, 1915, p. 908–10.)

——. Jitney bus regulation in San Francisco. (Electric Traction. May, 1915, p. 285–6.)

——. Jitney operation in Dallas, Tex. Statistics, etc. (Electric Rwy. Journ. May 8, 1915, p. 884.)

Keeping up with the jitney. 4,000 words. 7 illus. (Commercial Vehicle. April, 1915)

Discusses recent important legal developments.

Regulating the jitney bus. (Municipal Journal. Mch. 4, 1915, p. 295.)

Substance of provisions in Ogden, Tulsa, Salem, Ore., and Fort Worth.

What the community loses by jitneys. (Stone & Webster Public Service Journ. May 1915, p. 330–5.)

Bradlee, Henry G. Jitneys and the street railways. (Stone & Webster Public Service Journ. April, 1915, p. 237–44.)

Brashears, W. F. Jitneys. 3,000 words. illus. (Public Service. Mch. 1915.)

Experiences in many cities discussed; disadvantages, etc.

Regulating the jitney bus. (Public service. May, 1915, p. 135–8)

Headerson, C. A. Jitney bus in Los Angeles. How the business started, how it was developed, and its present status; statistics of operation. 2,200 words. 3 illus. (Aera. April, 1915.)

Koelker, E. S. The jitney bus problem. (Wisc. Municipality. Apr.–May, 1915, p. 87–90).

Locke, William J. Jitney bus ordinances. (Pacific Municipalities. Mch. 1915, p. 121–23.)

Synopsis of ordinances of San Francisco, Los Angeles, Oakland, Long Beach, Pasadena, Spokane and Boise, Idaho.

Oakland, Cal. Chamber of Commerce. The jitney from the community standpoint. April 22, 1915. 4 leaves. 4 °.

Digested in Electric Traction. May 1915, p. 286–7.

Reed, Frank. The jitney bus. 4,500 words. illus. (Municipal Engrng. Mch. 1915.)

Regulation, street traffic congestion, etc.

Palm, C. I. The jitney bus. (Electric Rwy. Journ. May, 1915, p. 315–7.)

St. Louis, Mo. Public Library. Municipal Reference Branch. The jitney omnibus and its regulation. Summary showing some of the principal developments up to March 15, 1915. 6 pp. F°.

—— Same. (Municipal Jour. . Apr. 29, 1915, p. 591–2.)

San Diego, Cal. Ordinance no. 6140. Regulating the operation of the "jitney bus." Approved May 1, 1915. 16 (1) pp. 12°

Syracuse, N. Y. Public Library. Jitney question (bibliography). Bull. 40. April, 1915, p. 3–5.)

Markets

New York City. Finance Department. Report on the maintenance of public markets in the city of New York and the financial results to the city of the nine-year period of operation ended Dec. 31, 1914. March, 1915. 25 pp. 8°.

Motion Pictures

Reed, T. H. Motion pictures in Berkeley. p. 150–160. April 19, 1915. (City Club of Berkeley. Civic Bull. vol. 3, no. 9.)

Municipal Experts

King, Clyde Lyndon. Training for the municipal service in Germany. 14 pp.

Same. (Jour. Amer. Socy. of Mech. Engrs. Feb., 1915, p. 98–102.)

Discussed by J. F. Young, Univ. of Penn., John A. Fairlie, Univ. of Ill., H. S. Gilbertson, exec. secy. Nat'l Short Ballot Assoc.

Lowell, A Lawrence. Administrative experts in municipal governments. (Pacific Municipalities. May, 1915, p. 219–23.)

Municipal Home Rule

Anon. Chicago and home rule. (Electric Rwy. Journ. May 8, 1915, p. 902.)

A short paragraph on the hearings before the Ill. Committee on public utilities to determine the necessity for "home rule" for Chicago.

Hatton, A. R. Municipal home rule for Iowa. (American Municipalities. Mch., 1915, p. 193–98.)

Also summary of home rule in French and German cities and American cities under constitutional home rule.

Municipal Ownership

See also Public Utilities.

Simpson, J. "Municipal trading." (Municipal Journ. May 27, 1915, p. 732–4.)

Legal powers of cities to engage in plumbing, brick mnftre, quarrying and dealing in fuel, real estate and liquor.

New York City

United States. Public Buildings and Grounds Committee (Senate). Site for federal buildings, New York City. Hearing on S. 4774. April 18, 1915. 53 pp. 8°.

QUEENSBOROUGH

Queens Borough Chamber of Commerce, N. Y. Manufacturing and Industrial Committee. Queens Borough; the borough of homes and industry; a descriptive and illustrated book, etc. 1915. 100 pp. illus. 4°.

ROCKAWAY CITY

Mac Innes (Duncan). Supplemental memorandum with respect to proposed Rockaway City bill as amended. Submitted to Alexander Brough, depy. comptroller by chief accountant. Apr. 14, 1915. 11 pp.

New York City. Finance Department. Memorandum with respect to proposed legislation which would sever and disjoin the fifth ward, borough of Queens from the City of New York, and erect said fifth ward into a new city, to be known as Rockaway City. Mch. 31, 1915. 15 pp. 8°.

Oakland, Cal.

Oakland, Cal. A review of municipal activities in Oakland 1905–1915. 46 pp.

Summary of the administration of Frank C. Mott, as mayor of Oakland.

Ordinances

Lear, Walter E. Municipal criminal law. (Canadian Law Times. May, 1915, p. 406–11.)

Contends that in some cases codes of by-laws enacted by Canadian municipalities under the Municipal Act, R. S. O. 1914 (ch. 1912) are ultra vires.

New York City. An ordinance constituting the Code of Ordinances of the City of New York. (City Record. Apr. 3, 1915, p. 2740–95.)

Organization Charts

See under Government.

Parks and Recreation Centers

See also City Planning, the entry under Smith, H. W.

Bronx Board of Trade. Parks and parkways in the Borough of the Bronx, N. Y. City. 1915. 76 (2) pp. illus.

Price, W. Henry. Design for the lay-out of a park and recreation ground. (The Surveyor, etc. May 14, 1915, p. 614–7.)

——and Alfred J. Design for lay-out of a park and recreation ground. (Journ. Institution of County and Municip. Engrs. Mch., 1915.)

Not seen, not known what relation this article has to the preceding.

Police

New York City. Police Department. The police bulletin. [Monthly.] Vol. 1, no. 1 et seq. Jan., 1915. 8°.

Port Development

Whitham, Paul. Port development at Seattle. 2,400 words. 9 illus. (Engineering News. Mch. 11, 1915.)

Details of scheme for development with description of structures.

Providence, R. I.

United States. Department of Commerce. Press notice of Apr. 20, 1915. "Providence, R. I. Its growing importance as a seaport."

Notice of chart in preparation by the Dept. of Commerce consequent on the active interest in development of Providence water front.

Public Health

Tucker, George E. The field of public health work, the health officer and his relation to the municipal govt. (Pacific Municipalities. April, 1915, p. 155–60.)

Doctor Tucker is health officer of Riverside, Cal.

Public Utilities

Cooke, Morris Llewellyn. Snapping cords. Comment on the changing attitude of American cities toward the utility problem. 1915. 42 pp.

Privately printed. Mr. Cooke is Director of Public Works, Philadelphia.

United States Census Bureau. Central electric light and power stations and street and electric railways; with summary of the electric industries, 1912. Washington, 1915. 440 pp. illus. 4°.

Williams, Arthur. Municipal ownership of public utilities. 7,000 words. (Water and Gas Review. April, 1915.)

LIGHTING PLANTS

Ballard, Frederick W. Design and operation of the Cleveland municipal lighting plant (Journ. Amer. Socy. Mech. Engrs. Feb., 1915, p. 104–11.)

Newbigging (William). Report on the undertaking of the Grand Rapids Gas Light Co. Mch. 1, 1915. 4 leaves. 8°.

A report to the Mayor and common council.

STREET RAILWAYS

Barclay, Parsons and Klapp, N. Y. City. Report on Detroit Street Rwy. Traffic and proposed subway made to Bd. of Street Rwy. Comrs. 1915. 6l. p. 5–291. 21 maps and plans. 4°.

Massachusetts. Public Service Commission. Rept. relative to amt. of investigation in street rwy. and elevated rwy. lines and to the cost to the commonwealth of acquiring such lines by eminent domain or otherwise. 1915. 46 pp. (House doc. 1636, 1915.)

TELEPHONES, TELEGRAPHS ETC.

United States Census Bureau. Telephones and telegraphs and municipal electric fire-alarm and police-patrol signaling systems. 1912. Washington, 1915. 208 pp. 4°.

Refuse Disposal

New York State Conference of Mayors. Cost and methods of collecting and disposing of ashes by cities. Data gathered in March, 1915, for the city of Auburn, by William P. Capes, secy. 7 leaves. obl. F°.

Reports

Sands, Herbert R. Departmental reporting for cities and counties. (Amer. City. May, 1915, 422–425.)

The third of a series of articles on this subject, viz: How annual reports for public use should be prepared, in Feb. issue; Graphic charts and photographs, in March issue.

Schools

Brown, Edward F. Health aspects of school lunches. Apr., 1915. 16 pp. 8°.

Reprint ser. no. 26, Health Dept., New York City.

Committee Representing all Teachers' and Principals' Associations in the City of New York. The public schools of the city of New York. Practical operation of "home rule" in respect to maintenance and support of public education in the City of New York. History of teachers' salaries under control of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. Argument for retention of minimum salaries fixed by state law, etc. 1915. 13 pp.

Edmunds, Franklin D. The public school buildings of the city of Philadelphia from 1845 to 1912. Philadelphia, 1915. 213 pp. illus. 8°.

One hundred copies, only, printed.

New York City. Dept. of Education. Division of Reference and Research. Publications 7–10. 1915.

No. 7. Assignment of principals, assts. to principals and clerks in elementary schools. 36 pp.

No. 8. Assignment of first assts. in high schools. 7 pp.

No. 9. Organization of classes in elementary schools. 18 pp.

No. 10. Rept. on the organization of the bd. of education and its committees. 110 pp.

Shiels, Albert. A report on the organization of the Board of Education [of New York City] and its committees. 1915. 110 pp. 8°.

Publication No. 10 of the Board of Education.

Smoke Abatement

Rochester (N. Y.) Chamber of Commerce. The smoke shroud, how to banish it. 22 pp.

Published by the Smoke Abatement Committee.

Streets

See also Alleys.

Anon. Tree planting in streets. 5,000 words. (The Surveyor. Mch. 12, 1915.)

Choice of trees suitable for planting, etc.

Connell, William H. The organization, character of personnel, scope of work, and methods of operation, and control of a large municipal highway department. (Journal Franklin Inst. Apr., 1915. p. 439, 70. illus.)

Mr. Connell is chief of the Bureau of Highways and Street Cleaning, Phila.

Curley, James M. The brush about the streets. (Boston City Record. May 22, 1915. p. 592–3.)

Address by the Mayor of Boston at the City Planning Meeting, Boston, May 19. In substance a reply to an attack on the mayor for responsibility of the condition of Boston's streets. Appended are operation and financial tables for the 4 years ended 1914.

Kimball, Theodora. Streets: Their arrangement, lighting and planning [sic. i. e. planting]. A bibliography. (Special Libraries. v. 6. Mch., 1915. p. 42–48.)

Miss Kimball is Librarian, School of Landscape Architecture, Harvard University.

New York City. Street Cleaning Dept. Clean streets through education and co-operation. Rept. of exhibition and tests of street cleaning appliances, Nov., 1914. 1915. 56 pp. 8°.

Newark, N. J. Shade Tree Com-

MISSION. "The Trees of Newark make Petition."

An especially attractive poster issued by the commission on arbor day, Apr. 9, 1915.

ST. LOUIS, MO. PUBLIC LIBRARY. MUNICIPAL REFERENCE BRANCH. Regulating street excavations. Digest of ordinances of eight cities regarding permits, deposits, maintenance bonds, inspection and charges for repaving done by city. (Municipal Journ. Mch. 4, 1915, p. 281–2.)

New York City, Chicago, St. Louis, Pittsburgh, Detroit, Newark, Worcester, Oakland, Cal.

Taxation

ANON. Appraisal of city real estate. 7,000 words. (Engineering and Contracting. Feb. 24, 1915.)

Gives formula for calculating value of city lots; comparison with "Hoffman" rule.

STREHLOW. Der städtische Boden als Handelsware u. seine Preisbildung. (Conrad's Jahrb. Mch., 1915. p. 363–79.)

Study of factors influencing valuation of urban realty.

UHLIG, JOH. Die Steuern vom Grundbesitz im Haushaltsplan der Gemeinden. (Zeitschr. für Kommunalwissensch. März, 1915, p. 391–98.)

Traffic and Transportation

See also Jitney Bus.

AMERICAN ELECTRIC RWY. ASSOC. Committee on the operation of motor vehicles. Report. 1915. 14 pp.

Address 29 W. 39th St., N. Y. City.

JENKINS, D. M. Extraordinary traffic. (Surveyor and Municipal and County Engineer. Apr. 2, 1915, p. 458–61.)

Paper by Mr. Jenkins, borough surveyor of Neath, England, at the South Wales district meeting of the Institution of Municipal and County Engrs. held at Cardiff, Mch. 27, 1915. An editorial in the same number briefly reviews the history of the British law as to extraordinary traffic.

NEW YORK CITY. Board of Estimate and Apportionment. Committee on Franchises. Form of motor bus franchise and routes as adopted in the Borough of Manhattan, Apr., 1915. 32 pp. 1 map. 4°.

ONTARIO. Public Roads and Highways Commission. Annual report, 1914. 277 pp. maps. illus. 8°.

This volume is extremely useful in cases where information on traffic facilities, market development, urban and suburban interplay is needed. Appendix no. 7, p. 108–110 is on "Supporting areas of Ontario cities."

SPÄNGLER, LUDWIG. Kraft-Stellwagen. (Oesterr. Städte-Zeitung. Nov. 1914. p. 141–150. illus.)

Comparative study of the types of motor buses in use in London, Paris, Vienna and Berlin.

——. Kraft-Stellwagenbetrieb in Wien. (Rundschau für Technik u. Wirtschaft. Apr. 10, 1915. p. 88–93. illus.)

Mr. Spängler is director of the municipal street rwy. system of Vienna. The above article is a report of a portion of his annual report for 1914.

Unemployment

NEW YORK CITY. Unemployment Committee. Abstract of the preliminary report of the committee on facts regarding existing unemployment. Jan. 15, 1915. 4 leaves. 8°.

——. Unemployment Committee. First formal report of the Mayor's committee on unemployment submitted by Elbert H. Gary. Feb. 5, 1915. 13 (1) pp. 8°.

Zoning

CITY CLUB OF BERKELEY. Civic Bulletin. vol. 3, no. 10. May 18, 1915, p. 162–180. . The zone ordinance.

The necessity for a zone ordinance in Berkeley; by Chas. H. Cheney. A factory zone necessary for industrial development in Berkeley; by B. J. Bither. The legal status of zone ordinances; by Frank V. Cornish.

STEARNS, R. B. Zone fares in Milwaukee. (Electric Rwy. Journ. May 1, 1915, p. 836–8.)

Abstr. of a paper read on April 22 before New England Street Rwy. Club. The Electric Rwy. Journ. of May 8 prints a letter from Mr. Wm. A. Bancroft, pres. Boston Elevated Rwy Co. on zone fare system, closing "the paper of Mr. Stearns is a valuable contribution to the subject."

To The Members of The National Municipal League:

The year closing March 31, 1915, was the most eventful in the history of the organization, and, if we may judge, one of the most useful. Notwithstanding the distractions of a foreign war of great magnitude, and the organization of a great number of new associations of various kinds; and notwithstanding that its *membership list* was carefully pruned, the National Municipal League closed the year with a membership of 2,576, which is only 6 less than that of a year ago. Had the names of the delinquents been retained, as is the practice in some cases, the figures would have shown a gain over preceding years; but the Executive Committee has felt that it would be better to eliminate the delinquents (even though something may be realized from them eventually) rather than carry them as part of the effective strength of the organization.

In view of the reports of so many local and national organizations to the effect that the hard times and the war had seriously affected the membership, we feel that the report which follows is to be taken as an evidence of the inherent value of the League's work and of the confidence accorded to it by those in the field.

MEMBERSHIP REPORT

The membership report presented to the Council meeting on April 7 was as follows:

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE—MEMBERSHIP REPORT

Fiscal Year Ending March 31, 1915

Number of members reported March 31, 1914 2,582

1914	*Additions*	*Resignations**	*Deaths*	
April	59	57	5	
May	30	13	2	
June	26	26	10	
July	20	9	1	
August	5	4	1	
September	12	12	1	
October	20	68	4	
November	21	8	1	
December	29	10		
1915				
January	81	59	2	
February	25	16	3	
March	26	47	1	
	354	329	31	
		31		
		360		
		354		
		6		6

Net membership March 31, 1915 2,576

Of these— 7 are life members.
75 are contributing members.

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* Including those dropped for arrearages.

TREASURER'S REPORT

The Treasurer's report shows increases in the total contributions, but the expenses have also grown notwithstanding great efforts to keep them within the income. This is a matter which is receiving the careful attention of the Executive Committee, with the hope that we may be able to carry on all our work without diminishing its efficiency.

To meet the new demands upon us it is essential that the membership list be increased, and we are going to ask our members to help us increase the number in the early autumn. Plans are being formulated. We will be glad to have suggestions as to ways and means and as to the most effective time of the year to undertake it.

Please let us hear from you on this point at your earliest convenience.

We feel very strongly that there should be a substantial increase in the number of junior members, for to them we must look for the active leadership of the future. Several years ago we made an extensive effort to secure a list of *first voters*, and we believe that now is the time for another similar effort. So we are asking the members to send us the names of those who are to cast their first votes this autumn and those who may be eligible for junior membership (*i.e.* those who are under 30). The annual fee for such members has been fixed at $2.50 by the Council.

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE SERIES

Three new volumes have been issued in the National Municipal League Series: H. A. Toulmin's *The City Manager*, Mary R. Beard's *Women's Work in Municipalities*, and Clyde Lyndon King's *Lower Living Costs in Cities*. These are substantial additions to the Series, of which seven have now been issued. The sales of these books are most encouraging and must be taken as an evidence of the interest in municipal affairs. Additional volumes are in course of preparation dealing with *City Planning*, *Excess Condemnation*, *Satellite Cities* and *Immigration*.

The interest in the National Municipal Review is unabated, but its publication is still a source of considerable expense. It is sent (without further charge) to all members of the League in good standing and therefore the cost of printing it is a gross cost, exceeding the cost of publishing the old Proceedings by about $2,500 a year. A portion of this expense has been met by contributions to a special fund. Some members have increased their dues to $10 a year for a period of five years for the same purpose. In time the increased membership will make both ends meet. This is an additional reason for increasing the membership as rapidly as possible.

We believe that an increase of the membership to 4,000 would enable us to finance the National Municipal Review without recourse to special contributions.

MUNICIPAL CYCLOPAEDIA

A Municipal Encyclopaedia is to be published under the auspices of the National Municipal League by D. Appleton & Company and under the editorship of the League's Secretary. This will not involve the League in any financial obligation, but will extend its influence as a source of authoritative information on municipal problems. It is to be in two volumes and contain 900,000 words. Suggestions with regard to this are likewise most earnestly desired.

The *Committee on Municipal Program* has held three sessions: one of two days in September, 1914; one of a day in Baltimore in November; and another of two days in April in New York City, attended by practically all the members of the Committee. The work which it is doing is of a most important character and illustrates the sort of consideration which the League's committees are giving to the important problems assigned to them. The Committee consists of:

William Dudley Foulke, *Chairman*, Richmond, Ind.
M. N. Baker, Montclair, N. J.
Richard S. Childs, New York.
Mayo Fesler, Cleveland, Ohio.
Prof. John A. Fairlie, University of Illinois.
Dr. Herman G. James, University of Texas.
Pres. A. Lawrence Lowell, Harvard University.
Prof. William B. Munro, Harvard University.
Robert Treat Paine, Boston, Mass.
Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, New York.
Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia.

The tentative conclusions reached by this Committee have been published in pamphlet form and are available to those members who desire copies. This leads to the question of *mailing the publications* to members. Members are entitled to receive the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW and all the publications published during the term of membership. Some of the members do not care for all the publications, so we have been sending them only to those who have expressed a desire for them. It is our wish *to revise the list of those desiring literature*, and we will be obliged if you will let us know in answering this letter whether it is your wish to receive such publications as the recent report of the Committee on the Relation of the City to Its Food Supply.

Through the various committees the League not only enlists the services of experts, but from time to time makes contributions of the first importance to the discussion of municipal problems. The committees which are now actively at work are:

Committee on Municipal Reference Libraries:

Dr. Charles C. Williamson, *Chairman*, Municipal Reference Library, New York.
John Cotton Dana, Newark, N. J.
Dr. Horace E. Flack, Baltimore, Md.
John A. Lapp, Indianapolis, Ind.
Samuel H. Ranck, Grand Rapids, Mich.

Committee on Franchises:

Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, *Chairman*, New York .
Robert Treat Paine, Boston, Mass.
James W. S. Peters, Kansas City, Mo.
Dr. Horatio M. Pollock, Albany, N. Y.
Charles Richardson, Philadelphia.

Committee on The Relation of the City to Its Food Supply:
Dr. Clyde L. King, *Chairman*, University of Pennsylvania.
Arthur J. Anderson, Editor, *Pennsylvania Farmer.*
H. B. Fullerton, Medford, Long Island, N. Y.
Cyrus C. Miller, Borough of the Bronx, N. Y.
Paul E. Work, Cornell University.
C. M. Arthur, New Brunswick, N. J.

Committee on Relations with General Federation of Women's Clubs:
Mrs. Florence Kelley, *Chairwoman*, New York.
Miss Jane Campbell, Philadelphia.
Mrs. Imogen B. Oakley, Philadelphia, *Secretary.*
Mrs. Samuel B. Sneath, Tiffen, Ohio.
Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia.
Mrs. George Zimmerman, Fremont, Ohio.

Committee on Immigration:
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Will members make sure that all the *local libraries* are subscribing for and receiving the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW? We are persuaded that this is one of the most effective ways of carrying on the League's propaganda.

The *Committee on Civic Education* has suspended its active work for the time being, mainly because of the inability to raise the additional funds necessary for its maintenance. It is of interest to report that temporarily the Bureau of Education has retained Mr. Arthur W. Dunn who had charge of the work. It is to be hoped that in time the work will be resumed with increased vigor.

This letter is being incorporated in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW *to save postage, and to ascertain how many of our members read the advertising page. We expect to be able to tell something about the* REVIEW'S *value as an advertising medium from the number of replies received and something of the interest of our members from the suggestions sent in.*

On behalf of the Executive Committee.

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF,
Secretary.

June 1, 1915.

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THE CRISIS IN PUBLIC SERVICE REGULATION IN NEW YORK

BY DELOS F. WILCOX, PH.D.[1]
New York

WHAT the governors of the state of New York since Hughes have done to the public service commissions is enough to make the angels weep. The commissions were established in 1907 for the purpose of correcting the unspeakable abuses in the management of street railway, gas and electric companies which had developed, especially in New York City, until the stench of them reached to high heaven.

The chief frailties of human nature are well known. It was easy to foresee, and is still easier to after-see, the chief weaknesses of the commission movement. It was clear that if the commissions should come to be manned by men who were politicians in the usually accepted meaning of that term, their efficiency would be destroyed and they would merely get in the way of constructive progress. A politician in public office may be defined as a man who has his mind on something else, while he goes through the motions of performing his official duties; and obviously, with so difficult, complex and technical a task as that of the public service commissions, a politician in such an office would be an unspeakable calamity.

Moreover, the experience of the country with city councils, state legislatures, congress, the railroad commissions and even the courts, had been such as to make it easy to see the imminent danger that these new offices would come to be filled with men who, either corruptly or "honestly," would think the thoughts of the corporations which they were set to regulate, and in effect would assume their own function to be the protection of the corporations not merely from undiscriminating popular wrath, but from the very law itself.

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[1] Other articles by Dr. Wilcox in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW are as follows: How the Chicago and Cleveland Street Railway Settlements Are Working Out, Vol. I, p. 630; The New York Subway Contracts, Vol. II, p. 375; Municipal Home Rule and Public Utility Franchises, Vol. III, p. 13; Street Railway Re-settlements and Negotiations for Municipal Ownership, Vol. III, p. 745.

From the standpoint of the conservatives there was the countervailing danger that shallow and flighty radicals might be appointed to the commissions and "play hob" with the solid investments of the people. This danger is a legitimate bugaboo that has to be thought down as the result of experience and observation. Doubtless if the commissions had the final power to do harm to legitimate investments, the appointment of unsound radicals to the commissionerships might easily prove to be a frightful calamity, not only to investors, but to the community as a whole. But all our political experience in this country goes to show that corporate interests know well how to take care of themselves in the matter of appointments to public office, and also that official responsibility tends to generate conservatism in those who have been ignorantly radical. Moreover, the great powers given to the commissions are not final but are subject to the ultimate arbitrament of the courts.

Another danger that could easily be foreseen was the possible inability of the appointing power to induce men of adequate stature to accept the heavy obligations of work and responsibility necessarily attaching to these offices. It was notorious then, as it still is, that the corporations, which, from the possession of monopoly privileges, are enabled to tap the pockets of the people daily, monthly or quarterly for the price of certain necessities of urban civilization, have more ready cash to spend and more willingness to spend it in subsidizing brains, than the state itself has. It was to be expected that the effort to bring public service corporations under closer supervision would result in the multiplication of their defensive operations and, consequently, in an enormous increase in their demand for high-priced experts in the legal, engineering and accounting professions. The corporations understood, and we all are coming to understand, that subsidized experience and intellectual adroitness can mold to their own purposes honest mediocrity in public office, or at the very least, can so muddle it as to prevent any effective action inimical to the interests in whose service brilliancy is enlisted.

Another danger, the corollary of this one, could also be readily foreseen, namely, that able men, having received their training in the commissions, would subsequently be "picked off" by the corporate interests to serve the other side.

It was easy to see that in so complex and difficult a work as that of public utility regulation, continuity of personnel, other things being equal, would be one of the most important factors of success. In the great city of New York, in 1907, when the Hughes commission was established, it is doubtful whether there were five men who were immediately competent to perform the functions of the commission. Governor Hughes had to take the best men that he could get, according to the lights he had, and then these men had to be educated for their jobs by their jobs. Men for this position need not only great native ability, wide experience, public-mindedness and almost unlimited capacity for intense mental application, but, having all these things, they are still unqualified for their work until they have had their wits sharpened in the stress of actual public regulation.

There was another danger in the establishment of state public service commissions which might have been foreseen and in certain communities was foreseen. I refer to the danger of inducing political atrophy in municipalities by depriving them in whole or in part of the function of control which they had previously exercised over local streets and local utility services. This rather subtle danger was not fully appreciated in states like New York, where municipal home rule has long been a matter of political clamor rather than of administrative experience. The reaction which has recently set in in Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, Washington, Illinois, Minnesota and other states against the idea of exclusive regulation by state commissions, is a lively evidence of this danger.

It might appear, from this recital of the perils foreseen or since seen, which were inherent in the public service commission movement from the beginning, that public service regulation is too dangerous to be tried; that the remedy it offers is more deadly than the disease it fails to cure. It may be safely said, however, that the public service commission movement had to be started and still has to go on, in spite of everything, until a substitute is provided that will bring better results.

Governor Hughes well knew that in the creation of new commissions with vastly increased regulatory powers, the state must take a certain risk. He knew that if the commissions fell into the hands of the politicians and became either instruments for the blackmail of the corporations or merely their bulwarks against the public desire for adequate service at low rates, it might be said of the state of New York, as it was of the man in the Scriptures when the unclean spirit, having left him, returned with seven other spirits more wicked than himself: "The last state of that State is worse than the first." Hughes knew especially that if the public service commission for the New York City district became an adjunct of Tammany government it would be a colossal failure. But the times were critical. Something big had to be done. Therefore, the governor took all the precautions that seemed to him possible to establish the new commissions on a high non-political basis, with prospective continuity of tenure and with all the facilities necessary for building up an efficient technical organization to protect alike the interests of the public and the interests of the corporations engaged in rendering public utility service.

The public service commissions law gave the commissioners five-year terms and yearly salaries of $15,000. They were made appointive by the governor and senate and removable by the governor alone for "inefficiency, neglect of duty or misconduct in office," but in a case of contemplated removal, the charges against a commissioner were to be presented to him and he was to be given an opportunity of being heard publicly in person or by counsel in his own defense upon not less than ten days' notice. If, after this, the commissioner was removed, the governor was required to file in the office of the secretary of state a full statement of the charges and of his findings in regard to them, with a complete record of the proceedings.

Governor Hughes began by appointing commissioners whose integrity was above suspicion and who were not actively connected with the political machines of either party. The terms of the commissioners in each district were so arranged that in his second administration Governor Hughes would have the reappointment, first, of a Republican and then, in his last year, of a Democrat. It was also arranged that the first one to go out of office after the close of the second Hughes administration should be a Democrat. It seemed reasonable to assume that the example of Hughes in the last year of his office, in reappointing a Democrat for a full term, would have sufficient weight to give a strong impetus toward a tradition of permanency in the tenure of the commissions. It seemed that his successor, if a Republican, could not do less than follow his example in reappointing a Democratic commissioner; while, on the other hand, if Hughes were to be succeeded by a Democrat, it would be easy for the new governor to reappoint a man of his own party and extremely difficult for him not to do so if the man's record was good and the commission had public sentiment behind it. Hughes also tried to forestall the possibility of Tammany control of the New York City commission by keeping the appointment of the commissioners in the governor's hands, although the commission was made the successor of the local rapid transit board and was given extraordinary powers as the representative of New York City. Moreover, the special difficulty of the regulatory problems in New York City, as well as the overshadowing importance of the local problem of rapid transit development, made it seem expedient to put upon New York City as a municipality the burden of paying the major portion of the commission's expenses. Governor Hughes deliberately and with cunning aforethought violated the principle of municipal home rule in relation to this commission. As later events have proved, in this respect he sowed the wind of expediency and the city is reaping the whirlwind of grief.

When the appointments to the original commission were announced in 1907, many New Yorkers had a feeling of disappointment, believing that the governor had not named as strong a body of men as he should have chosen. On the whole this disappointment was justified by the event, although it would be difficult even now to point out five other men whom the governor might have selected at the time with any assurance of better results. William R. Willcox, who was selected as chairman, had been postmaster of New York for a number of years and prior to that a park commissioner. He was not exactly a politician, although he had ambitions in politics. He was not a machine man, although he was not known as an aggressive reformer. He classified himself while on the commission as a conservative-radical. The other appointees were Milo R. Maltbie, a doctor of philosophy in political science and a practical student of civic and public utility problems; Edward M. Bassett, a well-known Brooklyn lawyer and long-time personal friend of Governor Hughes, who had in his early life had experience as a promoter of public utilities and later had achieved distinction as a citizen of Brooklyn, where he had served as a member of the board of education and had been elected to congress for one term; William McCarroll, a business man of long experience and high standing, who at the time was president of the Board of trade and transportation and of the Manufacturers' association; and John E. Eustis, a lawyer who had participated in reform movements and was well known for his rugged and out spoken honesty.

Chairman Willcox and Dr. Maltbie lived in Manhattan. Mr. Bassett and Mr. McCarroll were Brooklynites. Mr. Eustis hailed from The Bronx, which is the portion of the city north of the Harlem river. The borough of Queens and the borough of Richmond, large in area but comparatively small in population, were without representation on the commission. While it was not intended that the commission should be made up of men representing primarily the local interests of the several boroughs of the city, nevertheless the boroughs other than Manhattan came to look upon the representatives they had as more or less bound to fight for borough interests. This was especially true of The Bronx, which has for many years exhibited vociferous and persistent local individuality. It has special interests and has been clamorous for them. In transit matters it is the spoiled child of New York. This peculiarity of The Bronx was to a certain extent embodied in the character of Commissioner Eustis and has to be taken into consideration, along with his individual characteristics, in estimating his qualifications for the work of the public service commission. It appeared that in matters affecting other boroughs than his own he was often willing to back up radical action proposed by other commissioners. But when it came to The Bronx, all theories had to go by the board if their application to the problem in hand threatened to interfere with local expansion of public utility service according to the demands of The Bronx real estate "rooters," who seemed to comprise almost the entire population of the borough.

Soon after the commission got to work, certain differences of temperament and sympathies developed among the commissioners. Dr. Maltbie was the most radical of the five and Mr. Bassett, though inclining toward conservatism at first, proved to be the type of man who is educated by his job. More and more, Maltbie and Bassett lined up as the progressive members of the commission and McCarroll and Eustis as the conservatives, with Chairman Willcox holding the balance of power and harmonizing as far as possible the differences among his colleagues. Sometimes he voted radical and sometimes conservative, until, in the storm and stress of the rapid transit negotiations four or five years later, he became all conservative.

In his second term as governor, Hughes reappointed Mr. Eustis and Dr. Maltbie for full terms of five years each. Then came the political overturn following the retirement of Hughes from New York politics and the struggle between William Barnes and Theodore Roosevelt for control of the Republican party in the Empire state. In January, 1911, John A. Dix, the nominee of Charles F. Murphy, assumed the reins of executive government at Albany. In the fullness of his wisdom he launched an attack upon what he chose to style "government by commission," but his own special commissioner appointed to investigate the first district commission reported that it was doing very well with the vast and complex problems under its jurisdiction and specifically suggested that in view of the uncompleted rapid transit negotiations, it would be inadvisable to make any immediate change in the personnel of the commission. In the meantime, Mr. Bassett's term had expired. Mr. Bassett was a Democrat and had unquestionably become one of the ablest and most efficient members of the commission. However, he was beginning to incur the hostility of some of the powerful public service corporations under the commission's jurisdiction. Governor Dix, both on account of his business and social connections and on account of his political alliances, could not be expected to appoint public service commissioners against the protest of the corporation interests in New York City. After several months of painful wabbling, Dix finally evolved the happy thought of injecting more "energy" into the commission by appointing in place of Mr. Bassett the Honorable J. Sergeant Cram, chairman of the Tammany general committee, whose great distinction in New York was that he had served for many years as the social mentor of Boss Murphy.

How this appointment was received in New York may be judged by the fact that the editors of the New York *Times*, who are by no means distinguished for the laconic nature of their comments upon current political events, were reduced in their final effort on this occasion to the space of two short paragraphs, as follows:

> CRAM
>
> Governor Dix's appointment of J. Sergeant Cram to the public service commission of the first district would be scandalous if it were not so grotesque. All men who have a capacity for indignation for a public wrong will want to say something about the appointment, but what can they say? In the case of Cram strong language would be inappropriate.

It is probably the most absurd appointment ever made by a governor of the state of New York. And yet Governor Dix has the hardihood to say that "Mr. Cram understands, as few men do, the rapid transit needs of New York City."

The retirement of Bassett and the appointment of Cram would never have been possible, even as the result of a political overturn at Albany, if the Hughes commission had not made mistakes and in many respects proved a disappointment to the over-expectant people of New York City. A certain lack of energy and failure to grasp the big issues, as well as some mistakes in detail, had accentuated the inherent impossibility of bringing about the millenium in transit conditions in New York overnight.

The appointment of Cram in place of Bassett was regarded by those who knew and cared for the public service idea back of the Hughes commission, as the most stupid and wicked blow that a blundering chief executive could possibly strike at a complex instrument of government. It was as if an ignoramus, picked up from the street and given the job of driving a modern motor truck, had expressed his prejudice in favor of the old-fashioned one-horse dray and his inability to understand the new vehicle by heaving a rock into the transmission. It was one of those tragedies of democracy which tend to discourage the most hopeful and to fill with joy that excellent group of citizens who are constantly croaking about the inefficiency of government and the uselessness of public endeavor.

Mr. Cram, as a commissioner, fulfilled the expectations that greeted his appointment. Being unfitted by his temperament and training for the continuous mental effort required of a public service commissioner, Mr. Cram avoided the issue by denouncing the meetings of the committee of the whole, in which the commission did its work, as "star chamber proceedings," and by refusing to attend them. Curiously enough, however, in playing for political position, he lined up with Dr. Maltbie on the radical side of some of the big issues, notably the subway contracts. The weeping of the angels over Governor Dix's stupidity was turned into laughter at the ridiculous spectacle of Cram, the embodiment of Tammany indolence and craftiness, in alliance with Maltbie, the embodiment of painstaking intelligence and applied conscience, in an effort to check the conservative majority of the Hughes commission in its headstrong course on the subway contracts.[2]

[2] What the writer thought of the subway contracts was fully set forth in an article contributed by him to the July, 1913, issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW. Unfortunately, the entire history of the New York City public service commission for several years past hinges upon the subway contracts and the negotiations and interplay of political and financial forces having relation to them. Good men differed in regard to their merits, but there is evidence that public opinion is now veering against the contracts in the light of the city's present financial distress. At any rate, in this article the writer has been compelled to assume without further argument that the contracts were not in the interest of the city, and to treat the whole tangled development largely from that point of view.—D. F. W.

Governor Dix was not the man to learn much by experience. True, when the second vacancy occurred in the commission, he did not appoint another man of exactly the Cram type, possibly because he was unable to find another such in New York City, but probably because his sympathies and the interests that had most influence with him forbade the appointment of another man who would not be absolutely "safe." At any rate he selected in place of Commissioner McCarroll, George V. S. Williams, a Brooklyn lawyer who was allied with the regular Democratic organization and some years previously had been connected in a subordinate capacity with the legal staff of the Brooklyn rapid transit company. He was a man of considerable ability and industry, but he promptly lined up with the conservative element on the commission, supported the subway contracts and has continued to give the impression of extreme friendliness for his former employer, the Brooklyn rapid transit company, and the other big corporations having business with the commission.

Chairman Willcox's term of office expired on February 1, 1913, one month after the advent of the Honorable William Sulzer in the executive chamber at Albany. William Sulzer had celebrated himself in congress and throughout the country as a "friend of the people." Mr. Hearst and the New York *World*, both vigorous opponents of the subway deal, urged upon Sulzer the necessity of appointing in Willcox's place a new man who would kill the contracts before the city should be "sold out." Meanwhile, the majority of the commission, led by Chairman Willcox, left no stone unturned in an effort to get the contracts whipped into final shape and executed by Mr. Willcox before the governor could appoint his successor. This feverish anxiety was in part due to the fear that Sulzer might listen to the advice of the radicals and appoint a chairman who would upset the subway deal entirely, and, in part, due to the fact that Mr. Willcox considered these contracts as the crowning achievement of six years of arduous labor and was, therefore, extremely eager to have the honor of signing them as an evidence to posterity of the great services he had rendered to the city of New York.

Sulzer was a Democrat engaged in the difficult political exercise of riding two horses at the same time, with the further unfortunate complication that the horses were going in opposite directions. This feature of gubernatorial life has long been an institution in New York. The people look for it as they look for the regular return of Barnum and Bailey's circus to Madison Square Garden. Only about two governors in a generation refused to take the exercise. Sulzer had announced that he himself was the leader of the Democracy in New York State and had dared anybody and everybody (with a sly look in the direction of Charles F. Murphy) to challenge his leadership. At the same time he was seeking to placate Murphy by making appointments that would be acceptable to him, especially in New York City.

It is understood that Sulzer had conceived a personal dislike for Chairman Willcox, for some reason not generally known to the public. The friends of the dual contracts—and they included most of the great and powerful in New York—were insistent in urging upon Sulzer his duty to reappoint Willcox. But Democratic precedents, as well as personal dislike, stood in the way.

After a few days' delay, the governor announced his selection for the chairmanship. It was none other than the Honorable Edward E. McCall, Tammany judge of the supreme court and brother of the late John A. McCall of New York life insurance fame. It was not generally known that Judge McCall had recently been interested in the Kings County electric light and power company, a powerful Brady corporation of Brooklyn, but it was known and acknowledged by everybody that he represented the point of view of the big fellows in Wall Street—Morgan, Ryan and the rest. Sulzer announced this appointment as a purely personal one. McCall had been his friend for many, many years, and he called upon him, in this crisis, to give up the honors and emoluments of the judgeship and accept, at a personal sacrifice, the chairmanship of the public service commission in order that the whole subway controversy might be reviewed anew by a fresh mind. It was clear that McCall would be unprejudiced by any suspicion of knowledge of the subject. It was also clear that his decision would be such as to justify the confidence which Charles F. Murphy and the great interests of Wall Street had already reposed in him. When, a few weeks later, he came to render his decision, he announced that he had been unable to find an "i" to dot or a "t" to cross in these wonderful contracts. In fact, his only objection to them was that they were too favorable to the city. He signed the contracts and announced to the rapid transit companies, who were well represented on the memorable occasion, that he would be "on their necks" every minute of the time until the construction of the rapid transit lines was completed. To the public it appears that he has been *around* their necks, instead of *on* them.

Mr. Willcox felt much put out at the bad treatment he had received from the state, and the door of the chairmanship had scarcely closed upon him before he reappeared in the presence of the commission in the rôle of counsel for the Hudson and Manhattan railroad company (owners of the McAdoo tubes) in a big capitalization case and also as counsel for the New York Edison company, subsidiary of the Consolidated gas company, in a big rate case. Shortly afterwards, Frank W. Stevens, the able chairman of the up-state commission, was retired to private life by another act of Governor Sulzer. Stevens also was stung to the quick by the ingratitude of the state and immediately accepted the position of general counsel for the New York central railroad company. Thus these two distinguished public men were "picked off" by the corporations they had been regulating. In this connection it is to be noted that Roemer, former chairman of the Wisconsin railroad commission, recently resigned to go to H. M. Byllesby & Company of Chicago, and Edward W. Doty, the progressive member of the Ohio public service commission, was no sooner dropped in the political shuffle than he sold his services to the traction and light interests of Columbus. When so many distinguished and honorable men, left wounded on the battle-field by some shift in the forces of politics, have seen fit to accept the hospitality of the corporation ambulance, who can bring their patriotism to judgment? It is to be feared that few men on the public side really know the game, or else that "the jingling of the guineas helps the hurt that Honor feels."

With the appointment of McCall an important stage in the political history of the commission was passed. In spite of Governor Hughes's carefully laid plan to keep the commission from Tammany control, here it was in six short years with a Tammany chairman and a Tammany majority, holding their appointments, not from the mayor or people of New York City, but from Hughes's own successors in the governorship. Moreover, the time when this transfer of political control took place was one of the most critical periods in the history of the city. The public service commission, in its purely local capacity as successor of the rapid transit board, was just at the climax of many years of planning and negotiations for the expansion of the subway and elevated railroad systems. The subway contracts, involving the expenditure of $325,000,000, to be furnished in about equal parts by the city and the rapid transit companies, had arrived at their final stage preliminary to execution. Whatever else may be said of these contracts, it cannot be denied that they are the type of contracts in the execution of which Tammany takes delight. Under them the subways and their equipment are to be technically the property of the city, but they will be subject to a first mortgage held by the companies to secure the 50 per cent of the capital advanced by them. Moreover, in this case the holders of the first mortgage are to operate the property for half a century, leaving the city to protect its equity by the exercise of regulatory power vested principally in the public service commission and involving at an infinite number of points the exercise of discretion by the commissioners. When McCall became chairman and Tammany assumed control of the commission, the expenditure of enormous sums of money under the direction of the commission through a multitude of construction contractors was just getting under way.

Moreover, the public service law, while providing that the salaries of the commissioners themselves, of their chief counsel and of their secretary, amounting in all to $91,000 a year, should be paid by the state, made all other expenses incurred by the commission a mandatory obligation upon the city. The approval of the local authorities was required for rapid transit routes laid out by the commission, franchises granted and operating and construction contracts entered into, but for the current expenses of regulation and in the preparation of rapid transit plans, the commission could go to any limit in spending the city's money without the consent of the local authorities. This curious arrangement, devised originally by Governor Hughes as a guaranty that the public service commission established by him to carry out certain state policies should not be handicapped by local indifference or political hostility in performing its work effectively, had played into the hands of the very political interests from which Hughes had tried to protect the public.

A few months after McCall had been appointed chairman of the commission, he was drafted by Boss Murphy to be the Tammany candidate for Mayor of New York, in place of Mayor Gaynor, who had been denied a renomination by the famous meeting at Delmonico's where Murphy, McCall and half a dozen others had "cast lots on the garments of the city and divided her raiment among them." The Fusion candidate was John Purroy Mitchel, who, as a member of the board of estimate and apportionment, had stood firm to the end in his opposition to the subway contracts, co-operating closely with Commissioner Maltbie in this matter. District Attorney Whitman also had been a mayoralty candidate and had lost the nomination to Mitchel by a single vote. Thus, he was compelled to take a renomination for the office he then held, or else play the game alone. He decided to accept the renomination, and at this crisis, largely through the influence of Chairman McCall, he was offered the Tammany nomination for the same office. In his great disappointment over losing the mayoralty, he could see no serious objection to letting his own nomination and election be made unanimous, and so accepted the Tammany offer. In fact he scandalized a great Fusion mass-meeting by giving unqualified indorsement to the high character and qualifications of Chairman McCall, the Tammany candidate for mayor, while practically ignoring his erstwhile rival, Mitchel, the Fusion candidate. All the world knows the result of his campaign. Governor Sulzer had been impeached, not for his crimes, but for his revolt against the organization. The rage against Tammany grew into a devouring flame and McCall was beaten in a Democratic city by a plurality of 124,000.

As a result of this fateful election, Mr. McCall was enabled to continue to devote his energies to the service of the state as chairman of the public service commission. When another year rolled around, another vacancy occurred in the membership of the commission, and, thanks to the impeachment of Sulzer, another governor was in the executive chair at Albany. Mr. Glynn had made a good reputation as state controller during the first Hughes administration, but as governor he also had to ride two horses, and so when it came to the selection of another public service commissioner in the New York City district, after the usual amount of hesitation, he lighted upon Robert Colgate Wood, of The

Bronx, a gentleman who had some years previously served as president of a street railway company which had later been acquired by the Interborough rapid transit interests. In addition to this presidential experience, Mr. Wood had devoted his energies to the financing of various public utility properties in different parts of the country. His appointment appeared to be entirely satisfactory to Tammany and was not the subject of public criticism by the corporation interests. Glynn was in many respects a more efficient governor than his two Democratic predecessors, but his appointment of Wood turned out to be ridiculous in the extreme. Wood proved to be so weak that even his Tammany associates would not have mourned much if some wind out of the political desert had blown him away.

New York City now found itself blessed with a commission unanimously Democratic and, except for Dr. Maltbie, unanimously Tammany. With the advent of the Mitchel administration at the beginning of 1914, Commissioner Maltbie was offered a place in the mayor's cabinet as head of the great city department of water supply, gas and electricity. He declined this appointment and chose to hold on as a minority of one in the public service commission, where he was keeping up a stubborn fight to preserve as far as possible the standards and policies of the commission's earlier days, against the time when a shift in the political forces in the state might bring about a reorganization of the commission more nearly along the original lines. During his incumbency he had attained a national reputation as an expert in rate and capitalization matters, and at times the official reports of the commission were composed principally of his minority opinions. In some cases the Tammany majority filed no opinions, presumably because they had the good sense to know that their opinions, if they had any, would not look well in print, at least by the side of Maltbie's.

In the fall of 1914, District Attorney Whitman, still smarting from his loss of the mayoralty nomination, was triumphantly elected governor of the state on the straight Republican ticket. Whitman's success was so phenomenal that his star as a Presidential Possibility immediately appeared on the horizon. No one knew what his position might be on national issues or even on important state issues. He had no public utility record and New York watched anxiously to see what he would do with the public service commissions. In both districts and particularly in New York City, the popular discontent with the commissions and lack of confidence in their efficiency and integrity as representatives of the public interest, had become wide-spread and acute. Although Whitman had received his nomination by the direct primary system, it was known that as a young man he had been groomed and introduced into public life by the celebrated bosslet, Abraham Gruber, and it was feared by many that his acts as governor would be controlled by, or at least in harmony with, the wishes of William Barnes, whom we may now call a boss without committing libel.

The Republican sweep had included all of the state offices and more than a two-thirds majority in both branches of the legislature. The state had been scandalized by the unspeakably weak, inefficient and spoils-seeking Democratic administrations that followed the promotion of Governor Hughes to the supreme bench. It was an occasion when, if ever, ruthless legislation and administrative reorganization would be justified, if undertaken for the much-needed purpose of putting the government of the state upon a sound and efficient basis. So far as the public service commissions were concerned, three paths were open. The governor might simply fill the vacancies as they occurred, in which case the organization Democrats, holding over from the discredited régime of the past four years, would continue in control of the commissions until after the close of the governor's present term. He could remove the commissioners on his own motion, or, the Republican legislature could provide for a reorganization of the commissions by a change in the law.

Under these circumstances, it was hoped that the governor would have the courage to assume the responsibility placed upon him by the public service law. The public believed that the first district commission as a whole was inefficient and that the commissioners, except Maltbie, were dominated by corporation influences. It was a clear case for investigation under the Moreland act[3] and removal under the public service law. It was thought that if this course were followed, the governor could do no less than to reappoint Commissioner Maltbie as a nucleus for a strong new commission, worthy of the best Hughes traditions.

The governor strongly intimated that there was to be a prompt and thorough reorganization of the commission. Instead of proceeding under the Moreland act, however, and assuming the responsibility himself, he sought to enlist the co-operation of the legislature and to put upon that body the onus of making the investigation and pointing the way to such method of reorganization as might be found necessary or possible. Accordingly, a joint legislative committee was appointed to make a hasty investigation of both commissions, and Colonel William Hayward, the governor's political manager and personal counsel, was selected as counsel for this committee.

Instead of being tender toward Chairman McCall, as might have been expected, Colonel Hayward put McCall on the stand first of the commissioners and in the course of a two-day examination put him in such an unenviable light that his summary removal by the governor seemed inevitable. His use of public automobiles for private purposes was shown to have been scandalous. His ignorance of the regulation work of the commission appeared to be dense, and his excuse was that he had been devoting his energies from early morning till late at night to the task of familiarizing himself with the subway contracts and to the supervision of rapid transit construction under them. Then it was brought out that in the midst of his busy official life he had found time to carry on a considerable law practice from the commission's offices. McCall seemed down and out, and the newspapers and the public looked upon Colonel Hayward as a mighty hunter. Tammany inefficiency, even in the case of the great chairman, had been mercilessly exposed, and the happy day was at hand when the commission would be reorganized and New York City would be delivered of the nightmare of public service regulation by Tammany politicians. Hayward took the other commissioners one by one and gave them a civil service examination on their qualifications, their duties and their performances, particularly in the field of service regulation. New York was disgusted and delighted. Hayward set up a standard of efficiency and of strictness with the traction and lighting corporations which the commission had never attained even in its best days. Apparently, Governor Whitman was showing his hand and the fear that he would be subservient to the wishes of the great corporations in his handling of the commission problem was dispelled.

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[3] The "Moreland act" is a law giving the governor of New York authority to appoint a special commissioner with great inquisitorial powers to investigate any department of the state administration.—D. F. W.

It was expected, as a matter of course, that the known courage and efficiency of Dr. Maltbie, the lone survivor of the Hughes régime, would be recognized and that the character of his record would be brought out in sharp contrast with that of his Tammany colleagues. This was what the public expected. This was what those who knew the work of the commission intimately knew would be the program of an investigating committee sincerely interested in rewarding efficiency and proven devotion to the public interest and in weeding out inefficiency and private-mindedness. This was the course which an intelligent desire to prove the superior trustworthiness and governmental efficiency of the Republican party in the state of New York would have dictated. Maltbie was saved until the last—until, in fact, Colonel Hayward and the committee had made out a strong case against all the Tammany commissioners and had carried public opinion to the point where it would unreservedly support Governor Whitman in his apparent determination to make a clean sweep. But when Maltbie was put upon the stand, it soon became evident that Hayward desired to "get" him also, although his term had expired and if the governor wished to get rid of him no charges were necessary. Maltbie's examination lasted several days. The public began to see that what the governor and the legislative committee were interested in was not so much the inefficiency of the commission *per se* as the discrediting of all the commissioners, good and bad. The public and the press generally had been urging the retention of Commissioner Maltbie on the reorganized commission. But apparently Maltbie's strong support was displeasing to the governor, inasmuch as it tended to put him in a position where he would not be free to retire Maltbie and appoint a Republican in his place in case there should be any slip in the reorganization program. It was also well known that Maltbie had incurred the hostility of the great interests in New York, first through his strictness in rate and capitalization cases, and second by his vigorous opposition to the subway contracts. Moreover, most important of all, Maltbie was a close friend of Mayor Mitchel, and his reappointment under the circumstances would give a severe check to "government by resentment," the new fad at Albany.

When the public saw that Colonel Hayward's idea of an investigation was to "get" everybody without reference to actual efficiency and deserts, sentiment began to cool toward the investigation. Matters reached a climax when Maltbie, goaded into a passion by the investigator's insinuations against his official probity, broke out into a spectacular defense of his record and a criticism of the investigating committee's attitude. Just prior to this climax, it had been announced semi-officially at Albany that the governor intended to appoint Colonel Hayward himself as chairman of the reorganized first district commission. This apparent combination of selfish motives animating the investigation turned public opinion in the city strongly against Colonel Hayward and the committee, and in the resentment at the unwarranted attacks upon Maltbie, a certain amount of sympathy was generated for the Tammany men themselves.

The investigating committee finished its work in haste under prodding from the governor and reported that the members of the first district commission had been derelict in the performance of their duties. Maltbie's case was treated quite gingerly and his record was not severely criticized. Upon the basis of the committee's findings, the governor proceeded to prefer charges of inefficiency and misconduct in office against the four Tammany commissioners, whose terms had not expired and whose removal was therefore necessary if new appointments were to be made. The reaction in public sentiment in the city enabled the accused commissioners to rally to their own defense, which was so spirited and, under the circumstances, so effective on the mind of the governor, that instead of removing the entire group summarily, he held the matter under advisement for two months, until near the end of May, although the original program called for a new commission by March 1. In the meantime, near the end of March, he appointed Colonel Hayward in Commissioner Maltbie's place and soon afterwards selected James O. Carr, legal adviser of the General electric company in all public service commission matters, to succeed Martin S. Decker on the up-state commission. Colonel Hayward's appointment was greeted by the newspapers of New York with disgust and anger.

The Brooklyn *Daily Eagle* said:

> The distinction between Maltbie and Hayward, the turning down of the one, the exalting of the other, cannot be misunderstood. An expert in municipal government, in municipal betterment, goes. An expert in practical politics comes.

Whitman's first effective act in the public service drama showed that he had chosen to follow the example of Dix, who had appointed Cram to inject "energy" into the commission, instead of the example of his great predecessor, Hughes.

The interplay of political and corporation interests, in connection with the New York commissions, has a profound significance. It goes to the very root of the public service movement of the country. It is well known that a community of sympathy and interest in the subway contracts has made a mutual admiration society of Ex-Chairman Willcox and Chairman McCall. As recently as May 19, Mr. Willcox appeared before the public utilities committee of the constitutional convention to urge that the public service commissions be given the protection of the constitution. He recommended that the term of office be made ten years and that the commissioners be given the same security of tenure that is accorded to judges of the Supreme Court. After praising Chairman McCall and the two commissions under their present political control, he is reported to have expressed himself as follows:

> I can say without betraying confidence that Governor Whitman is experiencing difficulty in getting men of the proper calibre for the public service commissions. One reason is the short term and another is the fact that without constitutional protection the places are subject to political control.

This was *delicious*, coming, as it did, within two months after Whitman had deliberately sacrificed Maltbie, the expert, in order to put in his place Hayward, the politician! The bi-partisan powers of attraction brought into operation by a common interest in the subway contracts appear to be more powerful than the powers of repulsion caused by mere differences between Tammany and Anti-Tammany politics.

Finally, on May 26, Governor Whitman dismissed the charges against the Tammany commissioners, leaving his faithful lieutenant, Colonel Hayward, to "make good" his high pretensions in a commission stacked against him four to one. Until the charges were dismissed, the new commissioner talked and acted as if he expected the people of New York to believe that "one, with God, is a majority," even of a public service commission. The other commissioners ate out of his hand. But after the governor had taken his final action, the Tammany commissioners noticeably plucked up heart, and Hayward began to find himself in the minority when he became too energetic.

New York has settled down to "enjoy" its medicine. Commissioner Hayward scolds the corporations occasionally, but Chairman McCall goes on proclaiming his profound conviction that the traction magnates, gentlemen all, are working ceaselessly with only one ambition, namely, to render satisfactory service to the public. The public service corporations "got" Maltbie, which was something, and in the process kept McCall and Williams, which was something more. The gallant Colonel Hayward, Governor Whitman's crusader against the Terrible Turk, returned in triumph carrying on his spear the head of the sole survivor of the last preceding expedition. The net result of the investigation was that the pro-corporation Tammany politicians on the commission were whitewashed by the governor, while the one independent commissioner, who had made an enviable record, was dropped for a bird of another feather.

When the war is over, if it ever is over, and when the people of the United States have time again, if they ever do have time, to think of public utility problems, we shall see what we shall see. Meantime, Tammany, repudiated at the polls by the electorate of New York, both city and state, gets the bread of life from the hands of Charles S. Whitman, Republican aspirant for the presidency.

GERMAN CITIES UNDER PRESSURE OF WAR[1]

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IMPERIAL and state governments in Germany perform so many functions with such marked efficiency that one is prone to overestimate the degree of centralization prevailing in that country. So far as municipal powers are concerned, however, German cities are in general much better equipped than those of the United States. "One might almost say," to quote Professor Munro, "that, whereas in the United States a city may do only what it is expressly or tacitly empowered to do by common law or by statute, in Prussia, on the other hand, a city may do anything which it is not prohibited from doing either by law or by veto of the higher powers." Rising to the full measure of the opportunities thus accorded them, German cities have developed, especially since 1870, a plenitude of functions with such great success on the whole that they have justly attracted the attention and admiration of the world. To these normal but very extended activities, the pressure of war within the past year has added a great number of others, novel and complex in character, financially burdensome for the most part, but of the utmost importance not only municipally but nationally as well.

None of these new municipal undertakings has received more publicity in America than the introduction of bread tickets. Our interest was due partly to the sensational threat of possible famine; partly because there was something so typically Prussian in the thoroughness, decisiveness and wide grasp of the scheme. So far as the fear of famine was concerned German apologists hastened to assure us that the bread tickets were a mere precautionary measure made desirable by the possibility of failure in this year's crops, but by no means indicative of any immediately impending shortage of food. In spite of the sensational interest aroused by this policy it must be admitted that its importance was slight relative to the totality of new enterprises undertaken by German cities under pressure of war.

On January 25, a regulation of the German federal council provided that for the time of its operation consumption of grain and flour should be limited to three fourths of the average amount used during the first fifteen days of the year. Methods whereby this result was to be attained were not specified. Bread tickets were first suggested in the Prussian administrative note prepared to accompany the bundesrat's regulation.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iv, p. 109.

Immediately a number of cities complied, and within a brief period this solution of the problem was adopted virtually over the whole empire. In spite of the sharp reminder of possible food shortage implied by the bread tickets they were accepted by the people with patriotic enthusiasm. Many citizens thought they saw in the new policy a significant step in the direction of state socialism and welcomed it also on this account.

Within a short time, however, numerous difficulties made themselves apparent. Police officials who were entrusted with the distribution of the tickets found it necessary to install forces of assistants to cope with the great volume of administrative and clerical work entailed by the new system. In some places citizens volunteered to do this work without compensation. Originally the tickets were issued in most cities on a uniform basis, that is the same number were issued each week per person without regard to the age, sex or occupation of the recipients. It is not to be denied that this policy worked substantial injustice. For example, a hard working day laborer in whose diet bread had formed a large and indispensable part nevertheless received no more tickets than a comfortably situated official or professional man able to command a varied menu. In some cities recognition of this injustice led to more or less complicated schemes for taking differences of age, sex, occupation, etc., into account. Naturally such distinctions increased and complicated greatly the work of distributing tickets. In other cities following a recommendation made by the government, the uniform method was continued, but persons in the more comfortably situated and less hard working classes were requested as a charitable act to bring any bread tickets they had not used to specified places in order that they might be redistributed to persons needing them more. The city of Hanover decided against the use of tickets altogether, and endeavored to reduce consumption by controlling the quantity of flour delivered to bakers. This plan was advocated as much simpler and more effective than any effort on the part of the government to deal with the whole body of ultimate consumers. In opposition to the Hanover plan, however, the argument was used that bakers could not be trusted to divide their product fairly among customers, but would naturally favor the well-to-do. Altogether, therefore, every method of regulating the consumption of bread developed difficulties.

While it is admitted that German cities did everything in their power to compel economy, there is much criticism of the policy pursued by the government with regard to food staples. The war had not been long in progress before prices generally began to rise with alarming rapidity. In some cases the increase on such essential commodities as potatoes, vegetables, bread, flour and meat amounted to 100 per cent or more. To a considerable extent this was due to the stoppage of supplies by the war. But it was charged that no small part of the increase was attributable to corners engineered by private dealers and speculators. Finally the government found itself forced to fix maximum prices which, however, are much higher than the already high prices prevailing in Germany before the war. In some quarters the delay in fixing price limits was savagely criticized as due to the influence at court of the agrarians, or landed gentry. Certain it is that the latter have profited largely by war prices. The government is also criticized for its half-way policy of fixing maximum prices for various kinds of grain and neglecting to fix maximum prices for the corresponding flours and meals. Statistics show remarkable variations from city to city in the margin between grain and flour prices which can hardly be explained on any other ground than that of speculative influences at work in many localities. In an effort to help the situation a large number of cities purchased for storage considerable supplies of food including fresh and preserved meats and potatoes as well as grain. But here also it is charged that the purchases were made too late in many cases to take advantage of favorable market conditions.

In the field of social politics the war has forced upon German cities heavier burdens along all existing lines, and led to the establishment of many new methods of relief. A report presented by the magistrat to the council of Berlin in March shows the startling magnitude of these developments in the metropolis. For the support of soldiers' families alone the city had expended to the end of February, $2,032,431.46, in addition to the imperial contribution for the same purpose of $2,055,572.68. The number of such families had increased from 62,980 at the end of August to 92,557 at the end of the first week of March. A further increase was expected as a result of the calling to the colors of the older landsturm classes.

With the stoppage of industry at the outbreak of war the problem of unemployment also became acute. The magistrat of Berlin endeavored to meet this situation in part by ordering that all building and other undertakings of the city should be carried on as provided in the budget. It also placed at the disposal of the war department a large number of workmen who were employed in strengthening fortifications, and supplied these men whenever necessary, with boots, clothing, woolen blankets, etc. In addition the city provided monetary relief to the unemployed amounting to the end of February to $571,772.39.

City authorities also gave a great deal of attention to the matter of rent payments. In spite of the large sums devoted to the relief of soldiers' families many of the latter were unable to meet the full demands of their landlords. Additional relief according to the size of the family was given in such cases, but grants for this purpose were made conditional upon a reduction in the amount of the rent. At first many landlords refused to make reductions. When this happened the rent was simply not paid, and as a consequence most of the owners finally gave in. In February alone the city assisted soldiers' families in this way to the amount of $157,794. Relief similar in kind although not so generous in amount was given the unemployed who could not pay their rent. Finally ten bureaus were opened in various parts of Berlin where boards composed of officials of the municipal housing department and assistants from private organizations with a jurist as chairman endeavored to adjust difficulties arising between landlords and tenants.

Much relief had also to be given in the shape of food and clothing, in the distribution of which private organizations were called upon for assistance. For the provision of school lunches to children of poor families a sum of $87,500 was voted by the council in addition to the $55,000 already in the budget for this purpose. Refugees reaching Berlin from East Prussia were aided to the amount of $7,500. The city also advanced nearly a million dollars toward the establishment of a war grain company. Fifty thousand dollars were appropriated to cover the cost of administering the regulations with regard to the consumption of bread and flour. More than 200 acres of land belonging to the city were turned over in small plots to citizens for the purpose of making gardens, manure and seeds being supplied free of charge.

Assistance was even provided for persons struggling under mortgages. In co-operation with the four great property owners' associations, the city established a war loan bank with a capital of 1,000,000 marks, 60 per cent of which was advanced by the municipal treasury and 40 per cent by the four private associations. The directory of the imperial bank put a credit of 10,000,000 marks at the disposal of this enterprise, the city government undertaking to guarantee half of the amount. By this means powerful support was given to the whole structure of real estate credit and many foreclosures were avoided.

For the quartering of troops the city government of Berlin has advanced a net sum of nearly $100,000. It provided 2,492 beds for wounded soldiers, and transformed the newly completed insane asylum at Bucht into a hospital with accommodations for 1,700 more. The municipal savings bank of the capital city invested $14,280,000 in the two war loans. A number of small appropriations were voted by the council for charitable purposes, among which may be noted $59,500 and $23,800 for relief work in East Prussia and Alsace-Lorraine respectively, and $4,760 for the Red Crescent—presumably the Turkish analogue of the Red Cross.

From the outbreak of the war the government of Berlin devoted itself assiduously to the provisioning of the city. Up to the end of the first week in March it had expended $4,098,735.32 for food stuffs, principally flour, grain, legumes, potatoes, cattle, meat, bacon, suet, herring and fish. On sales from this stock it has received $1,302,141.08. Nevertheless some difficulty is being experienced in attempting to meet the terms of a notice issued by the federal council regarding the setting aside of supplies of preserved meat. Complete compliance with the administrative directions accompanying this notice would have involved the expenditure by the Berlin city government of $7,140,000 for hogs. A beginning upon this gigantic task will, however, be made by the purchase and slaughter of 80,000 hogs. It is doubted whether there are sufficient storage facilities in the city for the entire amount fixed by the bundesrat. What the municipality would do in case a suddenly declared peace found it with these enormous food stores on hand is as yet undecided. However, it has been suggested that the imperial government might be induced to take them over at reduced prices.

All over the empire municipalities are following Berlin's example, although of course on a smaller scale and with many individual variations. Meanwhile war conditions have materially reduced tax receipts and other revenue. As a consequence tax rates are rising rapidly. The most common device to secure needed income is an increase of the municipal levy additional to the state income tax. Thus Charlottenburg, which had been collecting an amount equal to 110 per cent of the state income tax, proposes now to raise this to 140 per cent. Leipsic contemplates an increase of from 120 to 150 per cent; Barmen from 240 to 260 per cent. Berlin's budget for the coming year reaches a total of $85,204,000.[1] This is exclusive, however, of the cost of relief measures due to the war, which it is proposed to lump together later and care for by bond issues, particularly since reimbursement to some extent is expected from the state and imperial treasuries. For some years past Berlin has anxiously striven to keep its addition to the state income tax down to 100 per cent. For next year, however, it will probably be compelled to make the rate 125 per cent.

In spite of war burdens and higher tax rates, German cities seem to have lost no part of their faith in the future. Great municipal undertakings which had already been begun are being carried on, and in some cases new enterprises have been approved. Berlin, for example, provides for bond issues in its next budget for underground railway construction, for a new and enlarged harbor, for gas and water works improvements, for the purchase of the Lancke estate at a cost of $4,760,000, for market halls and a wholesale meat market. Unlike most of its suburbs, Berlin has met the cost of new public school buildings exclusively out of current funds, and apparently the greater city intends to continue this policy in spite of the burdens of war.

All such new undertakings sink into insignificance, however, in comparison with the determination of the German metropolis, announced to the world's amazement in February last, to municipalize its electric light works. Under the franchise of 1899–1907, Berlin reserved the right to purchase the plant on October 1, 1915, at either its book or its assessed value. Two years' notice was required and had been given by the magistrat in 1913. This action, however, was taken primarily with the purpose of keeping the city's right of purchase legally alive, leaving the actual determination of the matter to a later date. Meanwhile many alternative plans were discussed, among them the formation of a mixed municipal and private operating company, and the continuance of the franchise upon a guarantee of materially lower rates. The operating company expected to meet the latter demand by opening up generating stations close to the fuel supply in the Bitterfeld district.. Suddenly, however, it was announced that the imperial government had taken over for war purposes the entire output of lignite from that territory. This announcement seems to have determined the magistrat in favor of municipal ownership and operation at the earliest possible moment. Under existing conditions it is a tremendous enterprise,[2] but the officials of the city are making the necessary financial and administrative arrangements for the transfer in all confidence.

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[1] For the present year the budget balanced at an even higher figure—$97,282,500, but this included loans amounting to $16,896,000. The loans for next year's budget are estimated at only $7,140,000, which, however, does not take into account bond issues necessitated by war relief measures. If these were included the coming budget should be the greatest in the city's history.

And indeed there would seem to be sufficient ground for confidence when one considers the showing made by the German savings banks in 1914. They began the year with deposits of $4,641,000,000 and a reserve of nearly a quarter of a billion dollars. The first six months of 1914 were extraordinarily favorable, the excess of deposits over withdrawals amounting to $88,060,000. July began well but toward the end of the month the rumors of war caused a considerable run on the savings banks. Following the declaration of war on August 1, however, the panic subsided. It is a remarkable fact that both August and September of 1914 showed considerably better results than the corresponding months of the preceding year. In October withdrawals exceeded deposits by from 80 to 95 million dollars. This, however, was due to the participation of large numbers of savings bank depositors in the first war loan raised by the imperial government. November and December again showed increases in excess of the preceding year. This is the more remarkable because formerly the month of December nearly always brought a falling off in deposits. The year as a whole shows an excess of deposits over withdrawals of $64,260,000. To this should be added interest credited to the depositors for the year amounting to $157,080,000 making a total gain for 1914 of $221,340,000. Recalling the large share taken in the management of German savings banks by municipal and other local officials the above showing is equivalent to a magnificent vote of confidence.

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[2] Operation of the B. E. W. (Berliner Elektricitäts Werke) began in 1885 with 3,000 incandescent lamps. On June 30, 1914, there were 2,106,801 incandescent lamps, 44,171 arc lights, 42,943 motors, and 7,837 other kinds of apparatus connected. In the business year 1885–6, the total number of kilowatt hours was 37,080; in 1913–14, it was 267,600,000. The present cable net work has a length of 5,381 miles. In 1889 the B. E. W. paid into the city treasury $270,844; in 1914 it paid $1,722,882.

The old maxim: "In time of peace prepare for war," is being reversed by German officials to-day. Numerous as are their present burdens, they are nevertheless busily devising ways and means to meet the problems that will come with the cessation of hostilities. It is evident that the need for relief work of various kinds will outlast the war. In some lines, as for example unemployment, the requirements will be even greater than at present. It is expected, therefore, that many of the social institutions which have already proved their worth will be continued. On this ground pleas are made especially for food store-houses, granaries, municipal bakeries, slaughter houses, milk stations, crêches, and even for the cattle fattening establishments. Prior to the war women and men of the laboring classes were employed to a very slight extent relatively in German municipal charities. This taboo broke down everywhere as the armies took the field. Hundreds and thousands of women and workingmen filled the vacant places in city hospitals, asylums, alms houses, etc., with the greatest success, and in the future social workers will doubtless continue to be drawn from these hitherto neglected groups.

One of the saddest problems caused by war, a problem moreover that will have to be faced for years to come, is that of providing for soldiers who have been injured or crippled. Early in May it was estimated by Biesalski that 40,000 men, or 10 per cent of all the wounded at that time, had been crippled permanently in one or more limbs or had lost the use of one of their sense organs. To these must be added the soldiers discharged because of permanent disability due to affections of the lungs, rheumatism, diseases of the digestive organs, heart trouble, nervous disturbances, and the lighter forms of insanity. Of course the major portion of this burden must be assumed financially by the empire, but municipalities will be utilized extensively in the administration of relief measures. It is significant that little or no attention seems to be given to pension schemes, although an imperial law was passed as early as 1906 providing for relief in the form of the payment of the rent of those injured in war. The dominant note in all this discussion is first, the best possible medical and surgical care; second, provision whenever necessary of the best obtainable artificial limbs; third, training of the injured that will enable them to return to their old employment in as many cases as possible or at least to do work that will make them self-supporting. At all costs the national disgrace following the war of 1870–71, when crippled organ-grinders were to be seen everywhere in the streets of German cities, is to be avoided after this war. Already municipal employment offices are making special efforts to secure places for the wounded who are unable to go back to the front, but who are capable of doing some kinds of work. Strong appeals are made to the patriotism of employers to take back former employes who have been injured fighting for the fatherland. Municipal and other public corporations, the government and particularly the war department, will doubtless provide light work as messengers, watchmen, etc., for as many as possible. In spite of all the science, care and money that will be expended for these purposes, however, one must stand appalled at the volume of pain, misery, weakness and poverty that will exist for decades after the war is over.

It is a relief to turn for a moment to one effect of the war that deserves favorable mention. Since the outbreak of hostilities there has been a distinct tendency to treat socialists in German city governments with some degree of fairness. In a number of cities they have even been elected to minor administrative posts and, *mirabile dictu*, such elections have received the necessary confirmation of the central government. Encouraged by these events the Berlin municipal council, on March 18, elected Johannes Sassenbach, one of its socialist members, to an unpaid position in the magistrat. Almost without exception in the past socialist fractions in city councils have voted against the budget. This year, however, they voted favorably in numerous instances, among others in the cities of Berlin, Hamburg, and Munich. Such occurrences, novel and significant as they may be, are not to be taken, however, as indicating complete reconciliation. The old antagonism owing to the inequality of the election laws and particularly to the Prussian three class system, are felt even more keenly than before by socialists. Repeatedly they have pointed out that in the trenches their comrades take equal chances with men of other parties. Why, then, should their votes not be counted equally in municipal elections? While no change of attitude by the government on this point is to be expected during the war, it is certain that the demand for reform will be pushed with greatly increased force when peace is restored.

Considering the bewildering number of duties forced upon them by war and the intelligence and patriotism with which these are being performed, one must admit that German cities are fully living up to their best traditions. Some friction there has been, of course, and some mistakes have been made, but on the whole the municipalities have completely justified the broad grant of self-governing powers conferred upon them, and have exercised these powers to the immense advantage both of their own people and of the fatherland. Like every other public institution in Europe, they are suffering, and for years must continue to suffer, from the vast waste of blood and treasure caused by war. But at least they are setting themselves manfully to the task of minimizing this suffering in every possible way.

GRAFT PROSECUTIONS: 1914–1915

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IS THE general plane of political morality in the United States rising or falling? Just a year ago a similar question was raised in an article which appeared in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW dealing with this same subject of graft investigations.[2] The next few pages of the present issue do not provide a conclusive answer to the question, but they endeavor to assemble some data upon which a possible answer might be framed. The narrative of reputed malfeasance and corrupt conduct in municipal office during the last twelve-month is much more extensive than can reasonably be compressed within these pages; what is here chronicled represents only the most striking examples, those which have received broad publicity or which mark departures from the usual course of public wrong-doing. It will be noticed that municipal corruption, actual and alleged, is not confined to the large cities; smaller municipalities have contributed their full share. Nor is it limited to any one part of the country. From Oakland in California to Everett in Massachusetts, there have been outcroppings of scandal all along the way. Charges, indictments and convictions have not been restricted, moreover, to any one or two departments of municipal administration, such as the police department, for example, but have involved various branches of civic activity. Among them all, however, election frauds stand out pre-eminent in number and in seriousness. This form of public turpitude certainly seems to be undergoing a revival if one may judge from the considerable list reported during the past year.

Chicago.[3]—In any chronicle of municipal corruption Chicago must still be given first place, whether it be for quantity and variety, or for potential graft brought into actuality by the frequent probings of different investigating bodies—the grand jury, the city council committee on crime, the civil service commission and the various boards which have looked into their own individual discrepancies. The council committee on crime, created in May, 1914, issued in the following March a report of nearly two hundred pages which covers the whole criminal situation in Chicago and gives statistics including the year 1913. The findings of the committee are briefly summarized in the following sentence: "The technique of man-hunting, the process of prosecuting, the care of the 'caged-man,' and the means of preventing the creation of criminals are far below standards already in practical operation elsewhere." This sentence might be taken in general explanation of the whole situation.

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[1] Secretary of the Bureau for research in municipal government at Harvard University.

[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 525.

[3] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, pp. 111 and 529.

In reviewing the graft prosecutions undertaken during the past year in Chicago, they may be roughly divided into three groups, namely, the police scandals, the vote frauds (including the voting-machine contracts), and the miscellaneous and minor evidences of corruption.

Corruption among the police force of Chicago seems never to lack an example. The first of these in the present docket is the indictment of Thomas Kane, a former police captain and now head of a private secret service bureau, and four justices of the peace on charge of conspiracy to extort money and defeat justice. These indictments were voted in connection with an alleged "shakedown" of "blind pig" operators. The trial, on charge of conspiracy, of William F. Stine, former head of the defunct United police organization, brought to light the existence of a "slush fund" amounting to more than $66,000, raised for the purpose of bribing certain city aldermen in order to obtain increased pay for policemen. The money was to be returned in case the increase was not forthcoming. Evidence showed that Stine had received about $30,000 of the fund and, hounded by collectors and contributors to get back their money, he fled from Chicago. Testimony was given by 23 policemen who had been swindled, and Stine was found guilty on charges of conspiracy and embezzlement and sentenced to serve five years in the Joliet penitentiary. A new trial was refused him.

During July the civil service commission started its clean-up of police affairs, which will probably be finished only after all the grand-jury indictments of policemen are returned. Charges of inefficiency and neglect of duty were made against a captain and three lieutenants who were alleged to have permitted vice to flourish for months, little disturbed, in the 22d street district. Although repeatedly warned by the chief of police that they would be held responsible for all violations, the officers were said to have received hints from those "higher-up" to disregard orders and public opinion, and to ignore violations of law by certain resorts. Involved in these cases was the murder of Sergeant Birns in the police battle of 22d street.

In October, Alderman Merriam, chairman of the council committee on crime, requested a grand-jury investigation of the alleged corruption on the part of certain members of the police force, and of the statement made to the committee by an investigator, that more than twenty ex-convicts were operating saloons undisturbed, a number of which catered to men known to be thieves, and that there were to be found in Chicago hundreds of pickpockets, hold-up men, "jack rollers" (men who frequent saloons, wait until patrons are intoxicated, and then rob them), and other criminals. State's Attorney Hoyne thereupon assumed charge of the probe into the notorious "crime and police trust" scandal. Briefly, the facts seem to have been these. Barney Bertsche, envious of the amazing profits secured by the police-protected "pay-off joint" in the Imperial building through swindling various persons, decided to open an establishment of his own even though his share in the general profits was said to have been upwards of $10,000 per month. "Ed" Rice, the head of the gang, objected to this and to the importation of outside wiretappers, as did the police, and instructed Detectives Egan and Monaghan to call off Bertsche and even to make away with him if necessary. It was this attack on Bertsche which let out the whole scandal concerning police friendliness with crooks. After Bertsche's indictment there was a general exodus of clairvoyants and wiretappers from the city. Frank Ryan, called the "king of clairvoyants," was brought back and used as witness in the case. His testimony disclosed the identity of several policemen and detectives to whom were paid for protection definite sums of money each month and occasional "shakedowns"—the monthly rate was said to have been from $400 to $1,000. Indictments have been brought against Captain Halpin, Lieutenant Tobin and Detectives Egan and O'Brien, but the trials have been postponed several times and the outcome not yet reached. Many charges and countercharges on all sides have been made, as is inevitable when first-hand information is to be secured only from crooks or convicted criminals, and a clear and unbiased view is not easily found. Evidence was discovered by State's Attorney Hoyne, during the investigation, that a slush fund was being raised among members of the police department, dive-keepers, and owners of notorious hotels, for the defense of the police officials indicted in connection with this prosecution; and it was suspected that a corps of policemen was being mustered to influence prospective jurors called for the trial.

Three other former police officials were charged in June with conspiracy with members of the so-called million-dollar burglar trust and with failure to arrest known criminals. Of these men, Captain Storen and his right-hand man, Lieutenant Weisbaum, were convicted, and Sergeant Roth was found not guilty,—all on the testimony of men serving in the penitentiary. Storen was fined $1,000 and Weisbaum was sentenced to serve three years in the penitentiary.

During the police-graft trials, a good many remedies for the situation were suggested and adopted. One of these was the order of the city council, on motion of Alderman Merriam, that the chief of police present at each regular meeting of the council a summary of complaints regarding robbery, giving date, location and amount involved, and indicating as soon as possible the disposition of each case. A proposal made by Judge Olson was for a night court, to facilitate the handling of crimes while "hot." Another recommendation concerned the revival of the vagrancy bureau, so that suspicious persons and criminals by suspect might be prosecuted for vagrancy and sent to the hated rock pile, rather than for disorderly conduct.

A definite conviction was reached in May, 1914, of three judges of election in the 27th precinct of the 19th ward at the November, 1912, elections. Two previous trials and acquittals had been held for these same men, the defense having admitted a fraud, but denying that the men arrested were guilty. Special State's Attorney Northup, in charge of the prosecution, pointed out that nearly 700 changes had been made in ballots cast in that precinct in the interest of State's Attorney Hoyne, Peter Bartzen, and others of the same party. The conviction reached in these cases was regarded as having a decided moral value. Just before the primary election in February, wholesale registration-padding was charged by Mayor Harrison's campaign manager, and six men and three women were arrested in the 18th ward. An inquiry by State's Attorney Hoyne was soon under way and election officials in the 1st, 18th and 20th wards were named in true bills, charged with perjury and conspiracy to violate the election laws. After the primary election came a new crop of indictments against nine men, including several judges and clerks of election in the 5th ward, with reports of wholesale frauds in other wards.

The final report of the Butts joint legislative investigating committee on the Chicago voting machines, which has just been made, condemns the machines and recommends the cancellation of the contract and repeal of the voting-machine law. It finds that the machines are susceptible to fraudulent manipulation by custodians, judges of election and voters, that they were operated in Chicago only by violating the elections laws, that errors in vote-counting were frequent, that the machines are not sufficient for the peculiar needs of Chicago, and that proper care and caution were not given by the election board in the whole matter.

The list of instances in which minor graft investigations were made is long and covers a variety of phases. In chronological order, they included an investigation by the board of assessors into a charge against two of its deputies for soliciting and accepting bribes on promise of exemption to taxpayers; the recommendation of City Gas Inspector Wilcox to the city council that it take immediate action against the gas company to protect consumers from "fast" meters, alleging that an annual overcharge of $200,000 is paid; the threatened prosecution by the federal attorney general of blackmailing by business agents of labor unions in order to protect Chicago labor and to prevent material made outside of Chicago from being used; the investigation by the board of South Park commissioners of graft charges against three of its policemen for threatening to arrest a man unless he paid them money not to; the rumor that $175,000 was distributed several years ago by contractors in connection with the city-hall contracts; the probe by the council into the bribes offered in the building department to secure withdrawal of an amendment to the building code and thereby permit the use of a certain patented construction material; the investigation by State's Attorney Hoyne as to the dodging of $50,000,000 in taxes unpaid; the reported land deals by which public officials were alleged to have made large profits in selling land for the site of the new union depot, the city being paid only $5.50 per square foot for its streets vacated, as compared with $18 per square foot paid to private owners; and the disclosure to Judge Olson of a system of graft used by bailiffs through fictitious fines.

New York City.—No particularly conspicuous cases of graft have arisen in New York during the last year. In the well-known Becker case, after two convictions for murder in the first degree, appeals for a further trial and for a commuting of the death sentence were definitely refused and Lieutenant Becker was executed on July 30, 1915. In a minor case of "jury fixing," George Jameson, who had been called as a juror in a civil case before the supreme court, pleaded guilty to having accepted a bribe offered to him by Milton Solomon to influence his verdict. Jameson's sentence was suspended; Solomon pleaded guilty and was sentenced to the Elmira reformatory. Charles Baxter, a physician attached to the New York county workhouse on Blackwell's Island, was sentenced to state prison for a term of three years and four months on his admission of guilt in receiving a "gratuity" in connection with secretly disposing of cocaine to inmates of the workhouse.

On June 22, 1914, 22 election officials pleaded guilty to a violation of the election law relative to voting the names of persons who did not present themselves to vote at the special election held on April 7 in regard to the constitutional convention. The vote was in favor of the convention by a majority of 1,353, and evidence in the case pointed to a conspiracy to stuff the ballot boxes to the same end. All the officials arrested served in the 6th election precinct of the 12th assembly district, which is the home district of Charles T. Murphy of Tammany fame, but they included both Democrats and Republicans. Evidence indicated that of the 300 votes cast in that district, 270 were fraudulent and not a single vote was recorded against the proposition. Six of the defendants were sentenced in the supreme court to the New York county penitentiary for terms of six months, and each of the other 16 was fined $100.

Oakland, Cal.—In a campaign speech made at Oakland in November, 1914, Francis J. Heney, former district attorney in San Francisco and candidate for United States senator, declared Oakland to be "rotten with graft" and to contain conditions as bad as those in San Francisco before his successful prosecutions there. The natural results followed: widespread popular indignation at evil conditions; the formation of a committee of citizens to expose the situation; its request that Mr. Heney be appointed a deputy district attorney and be given charge of the investigation; and the wrath which met District Attorney Hynes' refusal to appoint him. The next development was the subpoenaeing of Mr. Heney to appear before the grand jury with his facts. In compliance, he furnished a list of gambling places declared to be running openly in Oakland and announced that the highest police officers were on terms of intimacy with certain notorious gamblers. With this start the committee of 100 set about clearing up any suspicious circumstances which might be found in municipal affairs. Already four election officials had been indicted for primary election frauds and the difficulties in the way of accomplishing their conviction intensified popular belief that election frauds would furnish the key to the whole graft mix-up.

The first doubtful transaction to receive the attention of the Alameda county grand jury, as well as of the anti-graft committee of 100, was the optional purchase of park sites by the park commission. It was questioned whether the commission had not exceeded its charter rights in negotiating to pay $340,000 in ten annual installments and whether any city official had personally profited at the expense of the taxpayers. The grand jury, in a partial report, found no irregularity in the arrangement, though a minority report declared that the acquisition should have been voted on by the people instead of purchased out of the direct tax through a continuous option over a period of ten years.

Interest in the park matter soon died down, however, when the dredger deal was brought to light. In the annual budget the sum of $180,000 had been appropriated for dredging in the Oakland harbor, to be done, apparently, by contract. Commissioner Anderson of the department of public works, decided, however, to purchase a dredger and to do the work directly. Bids were asked and a dredger purchased from the highest bidder, Messrs. Clark and Henry, at a price of $98,950. The money was paid at once, although the machine was supposed to be on trial for a month. The firm which had made the lowest bid entered a protest against this unfair treatment and went into court on injunction proceedings, charging that the price paid was excessive and that the dredger could not be operated on the hardpan in the Oakland harbor. The court proceeding failed on technical grounds, but District Attorney Hynes took the matter up, subpoenaed the books and records of the construction company which had manufactured the dredger, and brought to light the fact that the price paid for this second-hand dredger exceeded by $22,000 its price when new. Furthermore, following its purchase, repairs had to be made and accessories bought at a cost of more than $25,000, in order to equip it for the work planned. It appeared that the dredger had been purchased by Messrs. Clark and Henry from the West Sacramento land company with dubious agreements as to financial advantages on all hands. Although the actual profit was divided into substantial sums and one portion of it, amounting to $5,381, was acknowledged to have been received by the surveyor for Alameda county as his commission in the deal, the grand-jury report on the matter cast no suspicion of grafting on any city official. The report stated that the jury found the dredger well-suited for the work intended. In the meantime, the committee of 100 had brought to public attention the fact that the city council had already spent its appropriation of $180,000, and $30,000 more, for dredging, with the work only three-quarters completed, and in February it filed its intention of starting recall proceedings against Commissioners Anderson and Baccus. The commissioners were accused of general extravagance and maladministration in the execution of their duties; Commissioner Anderson being specifically charged with engineering the dredger deal and Commissioner Baccus of voting for it and of passing inferior street work. Both men denied the charges formally. The recall petitions were filed, each with a sufficient surplus of signatures. They were, however, thrown out by the city clerk, who found that out of the 8,096 submitted only two were prepared according to the requirements of the city charter, which demands not only one signature favoring the recall, but a second, under oath, confirming the first. This furnished grounds for another probe by the grand jury with possibility of indictments for forgery.

Two other alleged sources of dishonest gains in Oakland concerned printing contracts in Alameda county and the city's grant of property to the San Francisco-Oakland terminal railways. In the first case, it was claimed that collusion existed among the printers of the county to hold up the city on its printing contracts and that time and again Oakland printers had acted together to keep up prices in submitting bids for city work. The second accusation was made by the reform candidate for mayor and asserted as illegal and as an attempt to rob the city, its grant to the railway of waterfront property valued at more than three millions of dollars. This statement was also affirmed in another campaign speech by Mr. Heney, who grilled the city administration for what he termed its gift of the Oakland waterfront to corporations for a price "less than the bootblack stands at the ferry building paid each year." On the same occasion Mr. Heney charged that there were ten thousand stuffers on the Alameda county registration rolls ready to vote at the coming election, and that the administrative affairs of the city were in the hands of a "bankers' ring," tied up with the local water and street railway company.

Terre Haute, Indianapolis, and Other Cities in Indiana.—Probably the most talked-of election corruption in the country for some time is that which has been brought to view in Terre Haute and its parallels as disclosed in other Indiana cities. In *Terre Haute*[4] the trial for the poll-fraud conspiracy was aimed against the political system which had got control of Vigo county, although it concerned as principals 27 leaders and workers of the Democratic party. Following the November, 1914, election, 18 tools of the machine, repeaters and sluggers, were arrested on an affidavit charging them with conspiracy to defraud the United States. Of these 17 confessed and pleaded guilty on indictment. The federal grand jury, after a month's investigation, finally returned an indictment involving the "higher-ups," and 126 leaders and workers of the Democratic machine were charged with conspiracy to steal the election. Nearly a hundred arrests followed soon after, including such prominent officials as Mayor Donn M. Roberts, Judge Eli Redman, Sheriff Dennis Shea, the assistant chief of police, etc. Of these, 22 who failed to furnish bonds, among them Mayor Roberts, were sent to jail. The releasing of Roberts on surety bond indemnified by Thomas Taggart, Democratic national committeeman, furnished one of the sensations of the episode. During January, 22 others were arrested, making 115 in all—8 city officials, 2 county officials, 14 city employes, 19 saloonkeepers, 15 bartenders, and many of miscellaneous connections. In this list was included practically every member of the city administration (save the chief of police who was already in jail under suspension), with Mayor Roberts regarded as the ringleader. These men between them were charged with about every variety of crime against the ballot box. A plea of guilty was made by 81 of those arrested (later 8 others followed, making the number 89), a denial of conspiracy by 8, and a demurrer by 26. Those who pleaded guilty were, in the main, ward-heelers, sluggers and gunmen, although this number also included the suspended chief of police, the former assistant chief of police, the custodian of the city hall, and a few policemen and municipal employees. Mayor Roberts and Judge Redman were among those who demurred to the indictment. The demurrer questioned the jurisdiction of the United States courts in elections of this sort and the sufficiency of the indictment against the election activities of the Democratic machine in Vigo county. This objection was overruled and the indictment held good in four counts on the ground that the right to vote for a United States senator or congressman is given by the constitution, that the right to sit as election officer at such elections is also a federal right, and that conspiracy to debauch such an election is a fraud against the United States. The trial began on March 8 and ended on April 6 after an enormous number of witnesses had been called on both sides. The jury found all 26 defendants guilty—this in addition, of course, to the 89 who had so confessed themselves. Mayor Roberts received a sentence of six years' imprisonment in Leavenworth prison and a fine of $2,000; other sentences were for five years' imprisonment and $1,000 fine, three years and $500, two years and $100, etc. Thus was a clean sweep made, every one of the 115 arrested men having either pleaded guilty or been convicted. The four counts of the criminal code upon which the defendants were found guilty included conspiracy to injure persons in the exercise of civil rights, to defraud the United States, to commit an offense against the United States, and use of the mails to promote frauds. During the government's prosecution it was shown that every element necessary for election corruption was present in Terre Haute, namely, (1) an ambitious and corrupt mayor; (2) city officers appointed by the mayor and indebted to him, and whose resignations he held in his hands; (3) a subservient police force; (4) saloons delving in politics and under his control; (5) a large tenderloin district. The maintenance of slush funds to which all the monied lower element contributed freely at the instigation of the police, helped to establish the fact, often charged, but as often denied, that a strong link existed in Terre Haute between politics and liquor. On April 25, Mayor Roberts was impeached by the city council on a seven to three vote.

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[4] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 492.

In June, 1914, the grand jury of Marion county returned indictments against 15 election officers in *Indianapolis* for frauds at the county direct primaries held in the preceding month. These officers included all members of the election board and the two clerks in each of three precincts in three different wards, and they were charged with various illegal acts, principally with bribery—a state of affairs which the Indiana direct primary law makes easy for crooked politicians. The outcome of these cases was negligible,—6 being early discharged, 4 others nol-prossed on motion of the prosecutor, and the remaining 5 held over. Another investigation which was made by the same grand jury lasted during the last few months of 1914 and searched into the affairs of the 1913 legislature. In December, 34 indictments were brought in against 13 members and employees of the legislature, including Lieutenant Governor O'Neill and Secretary of State H. L. Cook, then speaker of the house. All the indictments alleged that the men named had presented or signed false claims to be paid out of legislative funds, although only one person is said to have actually received the money.

In June, 1915, came another indictment of politicians by the Marion county grand jury, when Thomas Taggart, Mayor Joseph Bell, Chief of Police Samuel Perrott, City Attorney Barrett, and 125 other Indiana politicians were charged with conspiring to commit felonies in connection with the recent county primary registration and election. Several prominent Republicans were named, although the majority were members of the Democratic party. Such unlawful acts as importing voters, repeating, tampering with election returns by election officials, use of violence, threats or restraint against voters, violation of laws concerning voting machines, etc., were alleged to have been committed. The case is as yet unsettled.

Four other cities in Indiana have discovered and prosecuted cases of grafting in the last half-year. In *Evansville* evidence was found of the same sort of corruption as that rife in Terre Haute and Indianapolis, with the same plans and methods—the work of the Democratic state machine, in fact. Four city officials of *Kokomo* were indicted in December by the

Howard county grand jury—the mayor, city attorney, the president and another member of the board of public works—charged with oppression and misconduct and malfeasance of office. All officers were practically acquitted a few weeks later, their indictments being either quashed or nol-prossed. In April, a special grand jury, called to probe rumors of misconduct in the affairs of *Newcastle*, returned an indictment against the mayor in which he was accused in five counts of failure, neglect and refusal to perform official duties, of receiving a bribe, of protecting gambling and illegal sale of liquor, and of threatening a former chief of police with dismissal in connection with the performance of duty. The charges were emphatically denied by the mayor and he was acquitted in June. At about the same time, in *Muncie*, the mayor, president of police board, chief of police, and deputy prosecuting attorney were arrested on a joint grand-jury indictment charging them with having demanded and accepted bribes. It, furthermore, charged conspiracy to prevent the enforcement of all criminal laws while a second count charged that a majority of the police board were destitute of moral character and known violators of the law.

East St. Louis, Ill.—Discouraging results have been the outcome of the trials against the various former city officials who were indicted on charge of conspiracy to defraud the city. The tale is one of diminishing numbers. In the beginning several hundred indictments were returned by the grand jury; over half of these were quashed as being insufficient, and the number of defendants was reduced to 28. In April, 1914, E. Fred Gerold, former city treasurer, was convicted on a charge of withholding city funds, and sentenced to imprisonment in the penitentiary from one to ten years. Appeal for a new trial was granted by the supreme court. In February, 1915, after nearly two years of delays on one or another account, were held the trials of six former city officials, including Charles Lambert, former mayor, J. J. Faulkner, former comptroller, and former treasurer Gerold. These cases were believed by the state to be the strongest among the various indictments held and their outcome to be indicative of success or failure in the other prosecutions. It was broadly charged in these cases that the defendants, in 1912, conspired to pay out of the treasury certain amounts appropriated for the payment of coupons of bonds issued for street improvements but which had previously been paid, and that the second payments were wrongfully diverted. Documentary evidence was introduced by the state and records identified. The jury was instructed that a conviction would be justified only on evidence that two of the accused had conspired to defraud the city and that it would not be warranted on grounds merely that any of the defendants had received money fraudulently. An acquittal of Messrs. Lambert and Faulkner was asked by the prosecutor because of lack of direct evidence against them. The offense is one of the few remaining on the Illinois statutes for which the jury is allowed to fix the penalty. Its verdict was "not guilty." The remaining indictments against several of these same defendants and also against 3 other former city officials and 13 former aldermen will probably either be dropped or have an unsuccessful issue from the state's viewpoint.

Detroit.—In Detroit, likewise, a notorious case of graft-prosecution has come to naught and prolonged lapse of time alone has been effective to deprive the affair of most of its original shame and to substitute for the first sense of indignation at the exposed corruption a sentiment of misplaced sympathy for the accused. Its history briefly is this. Alderman "Honest Tom" Glinnan and other lesser lights were arrested in July, 1912, on bribery charges. The trials were postponed from month to month on the usual pretexts, and in March, 1913, on motion of the prosecuting attorney and against the objections of counsel for the defendant. Judge Phelan decided that a fair trial could not be had in Detroit within any reasonable time, inasmuch as the publicity given the cases had created strong impressions as to the guilt or innocence of the accused. The truth of the matter was that everybody knew conditions in Detroit to be adverse to the people's side of the case, while counsel for the defense was convinced that acquittal would probably follow a trial held in the city, no matter how conclusively guilt might be proved. Hence the request for change of venue from Wayne to Monroe county. The affair was further complicated in May by the resignation of Prosecuting Attorney Shepherd because of a threatened investigation of his office, which, he declared, would reveal facts that would strengthen the aldermanic graft cases. The new prosecutor, Allan H. Frazer, disagreed entirely with the view taken by his predecessor and by Judge Phelan, and asked for an abandonment of the change of venue proceedings and an immediate trial in Detroit. By this time counsel for the defense had changed his position and was opposed to a trial in Detroit. On technical grounds involving the respective spheres of superior and inferior courts in regard to the petition for change of venue and because of absence in Europe of the chief witness, the trial did not proceed until October. On the thirtieth day of that month the verdict of not guilty was returned for Alderman Glinnan. This man had been arrested with money actually in his pocket which, it was alleged, had been given as a bribe. But the softening influence of time and the long sequence of clever tactics used by the defense were effective in preparing the jurors' minds for the facts skillfully brought out in the trial. The theory of the defense was that Glinnan was an innocent man until he had been craftily approached and polluted by dastardly conspirators. The prosecution was unable to show anything prior to the offense and it was forbidden by the court to support its theory that Glinnan had been an habitual bribetaker and part of a clique in the council which had done so for years. The consequence inevitably was an overwhelming impression among the jurors of injured innocence and Glinnan was acquitted. In May, 1915, the remaining "boodle" cases were struck from the court's docket after several months of postponed trials and a motion of *nolle prosequi.* The failure of the Glinnan case made it practically impossible to hope even for a different outcome in these much weaker cases and there seemed to be no good reason for the state to pay the considerable costs of another more than useless trial. The only net result of these cases seems to have been the profiting of a dozen aldermen by amounts ranging from $100 to $1,000.

Louisville and Pikeville, Ky.—The discovery of a shortage amounting approximately to $14,500 in the accounts of the city comptroller of *Louisville* made clear the evil of too much confidence of one city official in another. The contributory negligence of the city treasurer in being "absolutely satisfied" of the honesty of the city comptroller and his failure to check up the accounts fall short only legally of being an equal crime in municipal administration.

Charges of bribery alleged to have been committed at the election in November, 1914, were brought on a large scale in Pikeville, where in February the trial in connection with some 1,100 indictments against about 800 voters was commenced by the circuit court. After two weeks' trial, 202 cases were disposed of, with 96 convictions, principally of negroes, each conviction carrying with it the penalty of disenfranchisement. But the proceedings received a setback in May, after a two months' postponement, when it was announced in the court that the conviction of the 100 men and 2 women charged with vote-selling and bribery would be set aside and the remaining indictments not taken up as the consequence of a recent ruling by the Kentucky Court of Appeals to the effect that two witnesses to a specific act were necessary to conviction for alleged election bribery. Courts in other districts of the state have taken steps to prevent and punish election frauds similar to those in Pikeville. Judge Betherum of the 28th Judicial District, sitting at Somerset, issued a solemn warning to all parties to guard against corruption and announced his intention in future to ask all grand juries to investigate thoroughly any violations of the election laws and to indict those shown to be guilty. The circuit court of Perry county, meeting at Hazard, began an investigation in March of vote-trafficking in its district.

In *Frankfort* the two remaining indictments against Secretary of State Crecelius were dismissed last October. These charged the defendant with obtaining money under false pretenses. Although he had admitted drawing state money and turning it over to his sister, under the construction of the law by the presiding judge it was found impossible to obtain a conviction since he was not guilty of the offense as charged unless he had appropriated the money to his own use.

St. Louis.—False registration on a large scale was charged against the board of election commissioners previous to the election held in St. Louis on November 3, 1914. Investigation from various quarters followed,—by a grand jury, by the police, by the election commissioners, and by one newspaper,—and results showed clearly that in several river wards there was the usual amount of rooming-house registration and manipulation of registration lists which is inevitable so long as the control of election machinery can be legally kept in the hands of the politicians. Early in 1915 another wave of popular indignation against this sort of crime was felt when it was discovered that on the first 27 petitions submitted by opponents to the new parkway, 28 per cent of the signatures were found to be fraudulent. In June, 1915, August H. Kuhs, a real estate dealer and member of the board of education, was indicted on a charge of having shared in a profit of $11,500 made through the transfer of a school site to the board.

Steubenville, Springfield, and other Municipalities in Ohio.—In March, Mayor McLeish of *Steubenville* presented charges to the city council asking for the removal of Hugh W. Patterson, city clerk and director of public safety. This was but the first outbreak of serious municipal disorder, for during the course of the following month a grand-jury indictment was brought against 42 persons—city officials, alleged gamblers and other citizens. The mayor was indicted on charge of embezzlement and extortion of small amounts of fees and costs in criminal cases, and the city-clerk-safety-director for a forged contract, obtaining money under false pretenses, and 13 illegal contractings as a city officer. Against two brothers of the mayor were brought 3 indictments charging larceny of city property. The mayor was found guilty of extortion and collecting excessive fees. The state bureau of municipal accounting was obliged to make several investigations in December of financial affairs in municipalities. It discovered in *Springfield* certain suspicious items which pointed to graft in the waterworks department and also as regards the recent bond issue. The state examiner reported in *Lebanon* a finding of nearly a thousand dollars against a member of the council and the village treasurer on the ground that they were interested in a company to which municipal business was given. In *Franklin* it was found that members of the village board of public affairs and their clerk had been voting themselves free water, and in *Corwin* a councilman who had drawn $40 for lighting the street lamps was charged with that amount and urged to withdraw either as councilman or as street lighter.

Montgomery, Ala.—The case involving the embezzlement of $90,000 from the funds of the state convict department is still unsettled. In this affair, during an investigation of the department in March, 1913, James G. Oakley, former president of the convict department, signed a blank check which was presented by Theodore Lacy, chief clerk, was cashed by a bank and the proceeds, $90,000 in cash, made way with. The defendant Lacy has been tried and convicted in two instances, and is now serving his sentence of fifteen years in the penitentiary after the affirmance of the judgments in his cases. The other two indictments against him are still pending. Mr. Oakley has twice been prosecuted for separate offenses in connection with his participation in embezzlement of the department's funds and has been acquitted; but there are several other cases remaining to be tried against him. It is interesting to note that collateral civil suits have been brought against certain banks for complicity with these two men. It was charged by the state that the banks were joint tort-feasers and were guilty of conversion. In the first of these cases the jury found for the state and its damage was assessed at one cent. The state has appealed from this verdict and the case will be again tried in November.

Jackson and Lansing, Mich.—These two cities have found themselves in difficulties owing to the charter provision which forbids a city official from participating in any contract entered into by the municipality. A member of the city council in *Jackson* charged charter violation of this sort against his fellow members and especially against the president of the board of aldermen and claimed that the financial returns were large. In *Lansing* the case of President Rikerd of the board of police and fire commissioners has aroused much feeling and a desire for a change of charter provisions. Complaint was brought by an alderman that Mr. Rikerd was also a member of a lumber firm with which the city transacted a good deal of business. Upon examination it was found that no less than twenty city officials, including the mayor, were violating a strict interpretation of the charter provisions prohibiting the city from holding financial contracts with business institutions in which city officials are interested. If the provision were to be rigidly enforced, these twenty officeholders would undoubtedly feel compelled to resign rather than to give up their business. Among them are some of the most valuable members of the city government and a number who serve without pay.

Other Cities.—A verdict of not guilty was rendered on April 25 in *Philadelphia* in the second trial of Henry Clay, John R. Wiggins and Willard H. Wales on charge of conspiracy to cheat and defraud the city. Mr. Clay was a prominent political leader and a former city official. The defendants had been convicted in the first trial under the prosecution of Assistant District Attorney Taulane. In *Des Moines* charges of extortion, graft, insubordination and conspiracy were made against two detectives recently dropped from the police force, by the head of the department of public safety, in answer to their demands for a cause of their dismissal. Charges of a less serious nature were made against the third detective who was dismissed in the shake-up. All of the officers were considered incompetent and inattentive to duty.

Discovery of a shortage of nearly $2,000 in the accounts of the waterworks department in *Fort Worth, Texas,* last summer, created among the city commissioners an insistence upon a complete and periodical audit of the books of all municipal departments. An additional check against grafting by city officials has been arranged in the adoption of a device which has been already used in Memphis and suggested for Chicago, for detecting the presence of corruption. This is the standing offer of $100 as reward for proof that any city employee is guilty of grafting while holding such employment. A statement to this effect is printed on the back of every check issued by the city.

The city of *Newburgh, N. Y.*, recently adopted the charter provided by Plan C of the New York optional charter law, and in June a straw ballot was conducted by the Tax-rentpayers' league to nominate the municipal commissioners. When the count was being taken it was seen that a premeditated and carefully planned effort had been made to nullify the result of the league's attempt to get an expression of opinion in regard to candidates. More than sixty fake ballots were received. An investigation was undertaken, particularly with regard to a possible violation of the United States postal laws.

This spring a prominent Democratic politician and a woman were arrested in *Paris, Ill.*, on charge of buying votes at the city election which was held to decide upon the adoption of the commission form of government. Warrants were issued also for other well-known citizens, as well as for a few other women. It was estimated that five hundred votes were bought at prices ranging from three to twelve dollars each and a thorough investigation of the fraud was asked from the state.

So much for the graft and corruption which has actually been investigated officially even if not legally prosecuted. But a citation of these cases does not really complete the tale of municipal grafting without some mention of the many occasions which never reach the culmination of formal investigation. Such was the case in *Buffalo* where the claim was made that a "boodle fund" of $100,000 had been raised with which to flood the city with "lying circulars, false statements, appeals to prejudice and all other engines and devices of municipal exploitation" in order to defeat the new commission charter. In *Pittsburgh*, again, a large deficit was revealed in the city's finances and the blame for it charged against the Armstrong administration. Considerable criticism of the police department was prevalent in *Minneapolis* last summer and the mayor of the city threatened to instigate a grand-jury investigation of the whole situation. The city of *Everett, Mass.*, has been characterized, by one of its aldermen in a public speech, as a "dealing city" (by which he probably means a city which makes "deals") and its administrative officers accused of a variety of corrupt acts. A similar censure, with special reference to the police department, has been made in *Sioux City, Iowa*, by union laborers, who assert a greater prevalence of graft under commission government than under the former council system.

THE HOME OF THE STREET URCHIN

BY BERNARD J. NEWMAN

Philadelphia

THERE is a growing recognition of the fact that the unit of society in a large city often is not the family, as it should be, but the neighborhood wherein the family dwells. The tendency of urban population is toward congestion. Where this takes place in any marked degree the neighborhood becomes, in a vital sense, an enlarged home, whose manifestations are animate and inanimate; animate in the life that pervades it with its work and play and sin, inanimate in its buildings, streets and pavements with their ugly monotony and disrepair. The child born into such a neighborhood becomes in a large measure the product of his environment.

The street urchin, a familiar figure in our cities, is such a child. The juvenile court has been created to take care of him; the truant officer has been appointed to corall him; the probation officer to mother him, yet all the time he is controlled by a neighborhood that is to him a vast soulless parent, moved alternatively by artificial temperatures of indulgent sympathy, brutal indifference or unrestrained cruelty. Even his home, where his family dwell, is an uncertain harbor, and though he may have parents who may wish to make it all it should be, it falls short of normal. How could it be otherwise? It is the product of civic shortsightedness and human greed. The very air that pervades it is poisoned by the stench of open sewerage or is highly charged with the carbon dioxide and organic impurities that are the products of overcrowded living and sleeping rooms.

At best the home of the urchin is one of tiny rooms, poorly lighted, oftentimes filthily kept, cold and cheerless, with no ornamentations worthy the name, overcrowded with swarming children and the ever-present boarders. It is too small to permit of privacy, too crowded to permit of forbearance, invariably so forlorn that its inmates are ashamed to bring their friends to it. As a rule it is surrounded by other similar homes,—a single cell in a vast beehive. It is so intimately a part of its environment that it cannot keep its secrets, is the subject of neighborhood interference and gossip, and makes a common cause, the lower it sinks, with all the evil surrounding it. Yet it is the home of the urchin, uninspiring, uninteresting, unsavory, discouraging, and the lad himself is often unwelcome there. To understand him one must know where he dwells, what his surroundings are and how they act upon him.

In our large cities the urchin is usually found among the foreign born population. His parents and neighbors have come from lands where different forms of government prevail. They have brought with them various conceptions of law and order, morals and social customs, language and ideals; but they have had in common the determination to better themselves and to raise their standard of living. Little of either is usually their lot, for they come with expectations begotten of few facts and vivid stretches of imagination. To many the door of hope often closes before they have had more than a chance to peep within, causing them a greater calamity than that from which they had escaped for it denies the new while sacrificing the old. Landing here, unacquainted with our tongue, they drift to their ghettos and there become enmeshed in an environment with which they are poorly equipped to cope. Strangers in a strange land they multiply its problems. Often the effect of their environment, when it has wrought its work upon them, presents nothing worthy of pride.

It will be generally accepted without demonstration that the parents of the street lad are poor, invariably of the poorest poor, with the father intermittently working, and the older brothers working or, like their dubious sire, loafing on the street corners and sponging on their common slave,—the mother who always works. The urchins are recruited from the babes who steadily appear. Children are bred more numerously when poverty is more intense. It breaks the strain of an otherwise monotonous existence until its frequency of occurrence becomes itself monotonous. The sense of personal responsibility is small. "It is God's will," is the excuse given, and the new comer is ushered into an atmosphere of indifference. It may be the first few children are welcomed with true mother love, but by the time the eighth or tenth has been born, this fire has burned low. Even less love is shown on the paternal side. The inordinate father, with no insight into the ruin he is causing, lacks the spark of the fire which creates true parenthood. The destiny of the child can, with almost a certainty, be prophesied. From the beginning his social atmosphere is depressing, his physical inheritance nervous and his spiritual outlook materialistic and base. The ultimate result shows later on in the restlessness which characterises his ways and makes him uncertain in the face of temptations.

In the normal, growing lad there are expanding emotions which, when held in check, give him a reserve power that carries him into independent manhood, but, left uncontrolled, drive him into mischief. The unfortunate fact is that these emotions are stimulated rather than repressed by the urchin's environment. In the first place his home is an alien's home in manners and customs, yet he is not an alien. His rough and ready life in the street has rubbed off the old world restraints. Different standards of measurement arise to alienate him from his parents. He is surrounded by the new, follows its dictates and runs into its licenses.

His greater familiarity with the ways of the street, the store, the city, the language and law make him the interpreter in the home, a position that develops self-importance and minimises parental authority. But should his argument be overruled his parent quickly sinks in his estimation as one who is still subservient to old world ways and is not abreast of the times. On the other hand the pitfall for the parent is equally dangerous in that if the mother accepts the lad's statement when he is deceiving her, she again falls in his estimation. In either case the result is that her counsel, when it is offered, is discounted. Long before the adolescent period when almost every boy has a trying enlargement of the ego, the street lad becomes unduly self important and self reliant and in the home tantalizingly irrepressible.

It is one of the unfortunate things in connection with the urchin's growth that he finds his guide outside the home. Occasionally it is in the school or club, but as a rule it is in the life of the street, or in the street's baser adjuncts, the darkened hallway, the back alley, the tenement cellar or roof. The consequence is that no matter how careful his mother may be or how well equipped to care for him, his point of view is antagonistic and she cannot translate his experiences into terms of developing morality. His father ought to be able so to translate his experiences, but he does not. Either he considers it too effeminate for him to undertake or he has become enamored with the liberty of the land and the license it affords and he goes his own way oblivious of his duty to his boy. Often he is a boor, if not a brute and seeks to browbeat his wife and family into abject subservience to his whims.

In consequence of these handicaps the lad's home lacks effective discipline. He is not taken to task for his mistakes in a spirit that is helpful. His parents do not know how. A sympathetic interpretation of the causes leading up to his misdemeanors is a rare thing. His vagaries, whether due to mere perverseness or to some physical defect, are treated alike. If he has been warned against certain practices, the mother does not follow up her admonitions to see that they are obeyed. She may ask him if he has obeyed her and, if he is truthful, he may confess to disobedience, for which confession he is promptly cuffed. At least that is his interpretation for when he tries the effect of a lie he escapes without a beating. He then knows he is not watched and he prevaricates. When the wall of family clannishness has been pierced by the complaint of a neighbor with whom his parents want to be on particularly good terms, then the lad is in for a hard whipping. No matter what the offense, the beating is not for his moral good but rather to give relief to the anger against him for his conduct. If meted out by his father, it is usually accompanied with oaths and is all out of proportion to the offense till the lad feels the injustice of it and grows defiant, biding the time when he will be big enough to strike back.

It is true the exigencies of living often make adequate supervision difficult. The mother may be obliged to work away from home. Many of the urchins of our cities come from homes where the mothers go office cleaning early in the morning and again in the late afternoon. The lads are left in the streets. Sometimes the mother is detained and sometimes she goes visiting while her children are locked out pending her return at ten or twelve o'clock at night.

The full effect of these various social conditions acting upon him directly in his own contact with the street and indirectly through the shortcomings of his parents is to retard the lad's grasp of himself, causing him to vacillate when he should decide and postponing for years, if not entirely, the development of those dependable traits that make for efficient citizenship.

Strong as are these influences to harm the urchin, yet there are others of like baneful effect in the home itself. If the former can be classified as social defects, these latter may be called defects of housekeeping. In a large measure the parents are responsible here also. And yet they are only partly responsible. Sharing with them the blame is that element of so called respectable society that for the sake of larger incomes is willing to sacrifice their tenants' welfare. Alike responsible are the municipalities that do not recognize the importance of their health boards and restrict their sphere of activity by limiting the funds at their disposal. In the last analysis the reason is psychological. Familiarity with dirt, plus a loss of ambition to do more than just enough to get along, produces a contentment with things as they are,—the *laissez faire* doctrine that goes along with slovenliness and discouragement in the habitat of the street urchin folk.

In a majority of cases the homes of the urchins both within and without are grossly unclean. There are many exceptions where the mother with Canute-like effort seeks to stem the tide and defies her environment by maintaining clean rooms and cleanly dressed children. These are the exceptions. The rule is contrarywise. Even though the average lad should go forth with washed face, he does not so maintain himself long. The badge of the gang is dirt and he is quick to put it on, his mother's wishes notwithstanding. Generally there are many handicaps to cleanliness. In his home, the lad is fortunate if he finds one faucet and one sink for drawing water for all household purposes. Often these are lacking. One of the toughest districts imaginable in a large American city lacks a water supply and draws all its water in cans from a well a half mile distant. A block of 56 houses in the same city has nine water fixtures and in some court properties as many as 16 houses draw their entire supply from one yard hydrant. The cheapest way to promote cleanliness is to distribute an ample supply of water.

There is another difficulty in the way of the maintenance of clean rooms, however, wholly independent of the water supply. Thousands of rooms where the street urchins dwell are never penetrated by the sunlight. So dark are they that lamps have to be kept burning at mid-day. Germs are born there to fight unseen, to rule with deadly power, whether they are of diphtheria, tuberculosis or fever. The floors and corners are heavy with accumulated dirt. The walls are papered, oftentimes several layers thick, making excellent nesting places for broods of vermin. These latter crawl everywhere. In the bed, on the table, on the food and even on the bodies of the infants and adults who make such rooms their home. Indeed such filth is accepted as a part of the surroundings. It was in one such home that a visiting nurse found the body of a two hours old infant literally alive with crawling vermin.

With the street urchin folk in order to be clean it is not necessary to be washed but to be blind to the presence of dirt. To hide it in some corner, or to cover it under some protecting garment is an easy way to get rid of it. He was a promising diplomat who, when told his little brother could not attend a settlement party if he came unshod in his coal black, dirty feet, said, "That's all right. I'll see that he washes himself and if he won't, I'll make him put on his shoes and stockings." If he could not get his point, he could at least get the semblance of it, so that all the world but himself would be fooled. A mother in this same neighborhood objected to the physician examining her child's arm for vaccination because it was so much trouble after she had "sewed her up for the winter."

Besides the filth on the floor and in the surroundings of the rooms where these poor live, the air within is also filthy. The windows are almost always kept closed. Even were they open, many of them would only rise on a vent shaft notorious for its failure to vent and to give into the rooms a more vile air than was in them before. Those living in it for any length of time grow sluggish. It even pervades their clothing and like musk scents the air wherever they go. Added to this are the escaping gases from untrapped and defective plumbing, odors from foul toilets improperly vented, cellars used as dumps, frequently damp and musty; fumes from defects which exist because of the almost criminal neglect of society to protect itself against the shiftless, disheartened poverty on the one hand and the avaricious, soulless landlordism on the other.

Not all the blame for the defects in the lad's make-up can be laid at the door of the house in which he lives, as we have seen. His food plays an important part. Yet even were it wholesome, the atmosphere and surroundings in which it is eaten tend to interfere with its proper digestion. Even when allowance has been made for this, other factors enter. The shiftless trait which accepts dirt and its brood also accepts irregularities in other habits. Especially is this true in the preparation of the urchin's food and in his manner of eating it. He needs the proper fuel and at regular intervals, just as any other engine of activity. His physical and moral well being depend upon it. It is an undeniable fact that the street urchin is insufficiently fed and upon unnourishing foods. As a rule his mother does not know what is good for him. What he eats is seemingly a matter of indifference providing he likes it and it is filling. So little satisfying is most of it that it leaves him with a craving which drives him to the candy store to allay. What he purchases there is for quantity and not for quality and is notorious more for its sweetness than its purity. The effect upon his stomach is disastrous. The doctor when he is called in to minister to the lad knows that the one certain defect he will have to combat is a weak stomach produced by the candy eating habit.

Moreover, besides the ill consequence attendant upon this abnormally appeased appetite, there is also an irregularity in eating which contributes its share to the lad's injury. Often he goes without breakfast, occasionally without dinner, satisfying himself with the cakes which his easily earned pennies enable him to buy. To sit at a table and quietly eat his meal is a luxury in which he seldom indulges. When he does eat from the table he almost invariably has his tea or coffee, no matter how young he may be; not infrequently, even in his infancy, he has his cup of beer or is allowed the drainings of the can which has supplied his elders. So little oversight is given to his ways that his failure to assimilate his food goes unnoticed until he is really ill. It is in the homes of his kind that quack medicines, potions that "mother used in the old country" and the ten cent doctor find their most devoted constituency. Considering all of which one quite naturally accepts the statistical records of the stunted physical development of the street urchins when contrasted with lads favored with a more normal environment.

Perhaps the most trying of all influences traceable to his home and thrust upon him long before he can see the necessity for personal purity, originate in his perverted knowledge of sex. He is not to blame. He is the victim of narrow quarters and a large family and overcrowded rooms. The poorer his parents are, the less they can afford to pay and the fewer rooms they can occupy. Thousands of families in our large cities have three or less rooms each. Not infrequently five and seven persons occupy one room and carry on there all their household tasks, eat and sleep and entertain their friends. They even share their narrow quarters with boarders. Beds are overcrowded and privacy rudely assaulted amid such conditions. What chance has the untutored boy or girl in such homes to even know the sanctity of the person, let alone the practice of chastity! Every safeguard instinctive to the girl to protect herself is worn down, and with its decline goes a corresponding weakness in the boy. Not only does he become acquainted at first hand with sexual abuse, but in many instances he yields to the bribes of men to commit even graver crimes. When one realizes what a factor the narrow quarters and the overcrowded apartments play in the breaking down of moral restraints, one understands how in a large city morality looses its leash and there is a lassitude in social cleanliness and the social evil looms large in the problem of policing.

Privacy in the home, a motherly atmosphere, a fatherly supervision, a correct interpretation of manhood, a pure, unifying family love, a strong reliance upon religious truths and the example of a consecrated devotion to all that is best, are denied to the street urchin. These fortresses for juvenile protection are not manned. Long before the lad is prepared, he has to face problems in living weighty even for the adult. It is no wonder that he fails. He is the creature of circumstances, the plaything of fortune, the product of a lack of civic foresight, the victim of defective municipal administration. The failure of society to eliminate the conditions that burden him, force him and his kind to fight hard when the vision comes to them, to establish themselves and their ideals on the plane of civic righteousness. Put not the blame upon him. He is what he has been made. And the factory that is turning out replicas of him today will keep on producing in kind until an enlightened public grows to realize the true meaning of Burns' words, "Man's inhumanity to man makes countless thousands mourn."

NEW SOURCES OF CITY REVENUE

BY ROBERT MURRAY HAIG, PH.D.[1]

New York City

THE financial position of most American cities can scarcely be described as enviable. Called upon to perform many important and expensive functions and pressed constantly from all sides to assume new ones, they are nevertheless crippled by restrictions on their powers to levy taxes and to incur indebtedness and hampered in the accomplishment of their ends by state legislatures which are usually suspicious and often positively unfriendly. Under these circumstances it is not surprising that city officials should have a chronic hunger for suggestions as to new sources of revenue. Recently the eagerness in a number of cities has become particularly acute; in some cases new revenues must be found soon if very serious consequences are to be avoided. In this paper the situations in several of our larger cities will be outlined briefly and some of the more promising of the suggested remedies will be examined.

St. Louis is fairly typical of a number of our middle western cities which depend almost entirely upon the general property tax. The city tax rate is merged with the rate levied for state, school and several other purposes to form the total tax rate which for six years has remained constant at $2.22 on the $100 of assessed valuation. This rate seems high until it is realized that property is considerably undervalued, being assessed, according to the census authorities, at little more than half of its full market price.[2] City expenses have been steadily increasing, but the income has also been expanding even though that part of the tax rate which is levied for strictly municipal purposes has shown a slight decrease.[3] This was possible because of the remarkably even and steady growth in the tax base which has increased approximately

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[1] Instructor in Economics, Columbia University; Expert for the Committee on Taxation of the City of New York; Author of "A History of the General Property Tax in Illinois," "The Exemption of Improvements from Taxation in Canada and the United States" and "Some Probable Effects of the Exemption of Improvements in the City of New York."

[2] "City Finances, special report of the comptroller of St. Louis," December 17, 1914, p. 7. The rate has not exceeded $2.22 since 1898 and has been as low as $1.90. *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[3] The rate levied to secure "municipal revenue" has been as follows:

1909	$1.10	1912	$1.03
1910	1.12	1913	1.00
1911	1.03	1914	1.00

During these years the total tax rate was constantly $2.22. *Ibid.*, p. 10.

15 per cent every four years.[4] But now there has been an interruption of this growth, the increases in the assessed valuations [5] for the past two years being negligible, while the requirements of the various departments have increased considerably. Comptroller James Y. Player, in a comprehensive special report, makes very plain the plight of the city. He shows that for 1915 [6] the estimated requirements of the departments exceeded the available revenues by more than $1,500,000 [7] even though the tax rate had been advanced fifteen points. An advance of twenty-nine points might be made before the constitutional limit was reached, but even this maximum rate would not produce enough revenue. The alternative of increasing the tax base by assessing property at a figure more nearly approaching its cash value suggested itself but it was found that an increase of $70,000,000, or about 12 per cent over the 1914 figures would be necessary. This undervaluation of property, of course, beclouds the situation, for it is impossible to determine its exact degree. Increasing the assessment means heavier taxes just as surely as increasing the tax rate, although there are sometimes political or other reasons for preferring the former course. Neither of these expedients seems to recommend itself strongly in St. Louis. The comptroller summarizes the situation as follows:

> We have now reached a point, however, where we must devise and establish some new source of revenue, or else advance at once to the constitutional limitation of debt-making power and taxation. Either that or we must capitalize the future as other large cities are doing, by fixing the assessed valuation of property for the purposes of taxation far beyond the actual value or selling price. Or, as an alternative, we might practice, for a time at least, a reasonable economy.

This last sentence contains the suggestion in which the comptroller has faith. In a letter [8] he reiterates that he thinks "the answer to all of the problems that have so far developed is *economy.*"

Although its immediate necessities appear not to be so pressing as those of St. Louis, the general position of Chicago is very similar. Certainly no large city is at present more restricted in its financial possibilities than Chicago. It possesses what is probably the most awkward organization and most confused distribution of functions and taxing powers extant to-day. The general property tax, in its most primitive form, is depended upon for the bulk of its revenue and nowhere has the system shown itself less dependable. The assessment of personal property is a farce. For example, investigations made a few years ago showed that approximately only one mortgage in every 1,000 was listed for taxation. Chicago has worn chains so long that they seem now to be regarded with indifference or even affection. An opportunity to be freed of some of the bonds will soon be presented, the legislature at its last session having decided to submit a constitutional amendment permitting the classification of property for taxation.[9] This moderate measure finds its origin in the recommendation of the special tax commission appointed five years ago and constitutes the first and essential step toward the establishment of a tax system which would put Chicago finances on an equal footing with those of other cities of her class.

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[4] The exact figures are: 1898–1901, 14.8 per cent; 1902–1905, 16.8 per cent; 1906–1909, 16.6 per cent; and 1910–1913, 13.8 per cent. One remarkable fact in the St. Louis situation is that personal property forms a larger share of the tax base to-day than it did in 1898. *Ibid.*, p. 9.

[5] 0.29 per cent in 1914 and 2.48 per cent in 1915. *Ibid.*, p. 9.

[6] Fiscal year ending April 12.

[7] $1,551,000. *Ibid.*, p. 3.

[8] Dated April 29, 1915.

The city debt seems not to be one of the major causes of distress in St. Louis and Chicago,[10] but in Pittsburgh this is a question of very grave importance. There the debt service for 1915 calls for the expenditure of $3,765,397 or approximately 30 per cent of the entire revenue of the city.[11] Aroused by the rapid growth in the debt and in general municipal expenditures, the Pittsburgh voters' league has issued a communication, pointing out the "serious financial crisis" which confronts the city and demanding action from the city authorities. Expenditures during the past ten years have increased 62.5 per cent, while population has increased 14.7 per cent. Because of an effort to keep down the rate of taxation, expenditures have exceeded revenues for the past three years, giving rise to a total cash shortage of more than a million dollars in 1914[12] and a floating debt of more than four million.[13] Criticism is directed toward the management of the debt, *viz.*, the use of 30 year bonds for improvements which are essentially temporary in character, and the piling up of the floating debt. The administration of the special assessment system is sharply criticised. The league demands that a financial program be adopted covering a period of at least ten years and that plans be made to provide the necessary funds. Studies must be made as to "what new sources of revenue can be found?" The communication declares that "real estate cannot bear higher taxes without absolutely endangering the city's future. Yet if Pittsburgh is to keep its place with progressive cities it must increase its activities in many directions. The only hope, therefore, is to find new sources of revenue; to cut the present cost of operation; and to make no improvements or add new activities without a well-defined program based on a businesslike financial policy." What these new sources should be, however, is not suggested.

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[9] The proposed amendment reads as follows:

ARTICLE IX

SECTION 14. From and after the date when this section shall be in force the powers of the general assembly over the subject matter of the taxation of personal property shall be as complete and unrestricted as they would be if sections one (1), three (3), nine (9) and ten (10), of this article of the constitution did not exist; *provided, however*, that any tax levied upon personal property must be uniform as to persons and property of the same class within the jurisdiction of the body imposing the same, and all exemptions from taxation shall be by general law, and shall be revocable by the general assembly at any time.

[10] It is true that there is some agitation in Chicago for greater freedom in incurring indebtedness. It is urged in some quarters that bonds issued for commercial enterprises be not counted in computing borrowing powers. *Chicago Examiner*, Dec. 11, 1914. The so-called Juul Law has been so amended as to put the rate necessary to meet interest and sinking fund charges beyond the maximum tax rate.

[11] Communication addressed to the mayor and council of Pittsburgh by the executive committee of the voters' league, dated February 2, 1915.

[12] $1,198,589. *Ibid.*

[13] $4,244,371. *Ibid.*

In Pennsylvania there is substantial separation of the sources of revenue; moreover, Pittsburgh seems to have little difficulty in securing such changes in her tax laws as is desirable.[14] Recently radical changes have been made there, including the adoption of the plan to reduce gradually the tax on buildings. Because of the very complicated situation which formerly existed in Pittsburgh,[15] it is difficult to determine whether the changes will mean increased or decreased revenues. What will be done to secure revenues for Pittsburgh under these conditions will be watched with interest. It may be noted that the league believes that the entire solution is not to be sought in economy and efficiency. "Unquestionably substantial saving can be made" reads the communication, but it is felt that something must also be done to increase revenues.

The financial troubles of the Ohio cities have been so fully treated in recent articles in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW[16] and elsewhere, that they will be merely mentioned here. It will be recalled that the immediate cause of the present difficulty is a tax limitation law imposed by the legislature. The explanation of at least part of the sentiment which is responsible for this limitation on tax rates is to be sought in the objection on the part of a considerable number to the great increases in municipal expenditures. Then there is an almost inevitable clash between what the cities want and what the predominantly rural legislature thinks they should have.[17] The Ohio situation seems likely to result in a great impetus to both the home-rule and the tax-reform movements. The report of the Cleveland civic league on taxation in Ohio recommends that the sources of state and local revenue be separated, and that the general property tax be so modified as to permit the classification of property for the purposes of taxation.[18] The report of the committee appointed by the governor of Ohio joins with the Cleveland report in recommending the separation of the sources but makes no other suggestions of more than local interest.[19]

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[14] The cities of Pennsylvania are so grouped as to make Scranton the only companion of Pittsburgh in its class.

[15] There was a peculiar classification of land and a system of local rates in school districts.

[16] *Cf.* S. Gale Lowrie, "Municipal revenues in Ohio," NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, April, 1915, pp. 254–261; Karl F. Geiser, "The financial condition of Ohio municipalities, *ibid*, July, 1915, pp. 453–455; and O. C. Lockhart," Recent developments in taxation in Ohio, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, May, 1915, pp. 480–521.

[17] *Cf.* Remarks of Senator Herman Fellinger and C. T. Gallagher. *Dayton News*, May 1, 1915.

Similar to the Ohio cities in most of the essentials of its problem is Birmingham, Alabama. There is a clause in the constitution of Alabama which forbids a tax rate of more than one per cent for all purposes. This applies even to rates levied to meet debt charges and has operated to the great disadvantage of Alabama municipalities in their attempts to float loans.[20] Now pressure against this restriction comes from another direction. Birmingham finds that it cannot raise sufficient funds from a rate so low as this. During the past three years, a deficit of nearly a million dollars[21] has accumulated. The problem of how to care for this deficit and how to prevent the accumulation of another was referred by the board of commissioners to a committee of 100 citizens. A sub-committee reported to this body that there was almost nothing to criticize in the administration of the city's finances and that the problem was chiefly one of securing more revenue. It was suggested that the existing deficit be bonded and relief sought from the constitutional restriction on the rate. The city officials desire to be allowed to increase the rate from one to one and one-half per cent. The most interesting part of the Birmingham plan, however, is not a proposal for new revenue, but an arrangement whereby a budget involving an increase in the tax rate above one per cent must be submitted to the electors before it can be put into effect.

If space permitted it might be of interest to describe the fight which Mayor Curley of Boston is making against the debt policy of that city. It is his belief that "the proper way to administer the city's finances is to pay as we go, out of taxes, and stop borrowing," and he would have the legislature take from the city power to borrow for any purpose except rapid transit,[22] which would seem to imply decreased functions or greater revenues for Boston. It may be noted in passing that through acts passed in 1907, 1910 and 1913, Boston now collects approximately $75,000 annually in fees for permits to erect signs and to obstruct the streets in various fashions.[23]

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[18] Taxation in Ohio, Report of the civic league of Cleveland, 1915, pp. 10–12.

[19] Report of the committee for an investigation of finances of municipalities, pp. 21–25.

[20] Letter of Harris Forbes & Co. to the president of the board of commissioners of Birmingham, Alabama.

[21] $880,460.22 on September 30, 1914. Report of the sub-committee to investigate expenditures of the city of Birmingham, p. 5.

[22] *Boston City Record*, Feb. 20, 1915, p. 174. Quoted in New York *Municipal Reference Library Notes*, vol. i, p. 74.

[23] Acts of Mass. 1907, c. 584; 1910, c. 571; and 1913, c. 680. Letter from City Treasurer Charles H. Slattery, dated April 2, 1915.

It would be of interest also to recount in detail the efforts of Baltimore to increase the city's resources by the adoption of businesslike methods. By prompt payment of bills, enough money has been saved to pay the mayor's salary. The utilization of surplus power from the high-pressure station was used to heat and light several public buildings. Centralized purchases and a municipal insurance fund were other efforts toward economy. By a readjustment in market fees and water rates, deficits in these departments were eliminated. Here, as in Boston, some additional revenue is being obtained from fees for signs and obstructions. Finally, special assessments for local improvements are being more widely used than was formerly the case.[24]

The most interesting problem has been reserved until last—that which is now troubling the city of New York, for in New York most of the suggestions now being considered in other cities have already been put into operation. Here the separation of sources may be called the normal situation, for it is only when there is some special need that a state rate is added to the local rate on real estate and personal property; and full value assessments, the fruit of separation of sources, have been achieved. The classification of the base has been in force for years. Mortgages and secured debts are given separate treatment under a recording tax and are then exempt from the general tax rate. Indeed, so much personal property has been exempted that scarcely any remains on the tax rolls, this element constituting less than 5 per cent of the tax base in 1914.[25] Here there exists what is acknowledged by experts to be the best assessment of real estate in the world. There may be still an opportunity for economy in some directions, but the city is in control of an administration which has chosen efficiency as its god, and further attempts to economize would probably have disappointingly small results. In spite of all this, the City of New York is financially embarrassed.

The general problem has been present in New York for some time, although it has assumed its very acute form only recently. As early as January, 1911, Mayor Gaynor, faced with the prospect of a direct state tax and increased city expenses, felt it necessary to appoint his commission on new sources of city revenue. Both the state and the city were carrying on large improvement projects. The enlargement of the Erie canal and the construction of a great net-work of roads were occupying the attention of the state while the city struggled with the problem of financing the new subway system.

The report of the Gaynor commission, submitted in January, 1913, contained some suggestions of exceedingly great interest.[26] It proposed, for example, a special tax on the future increases in land values, patterned somewhat after the English and German increment taxes, but having distinct features of its own. It suggested that the expenses of constructing rapid transit lines be levied upon the real estate especially benefited on the special assessment principle. In the hope of securing a fuller assessment, it recommended that a lower rate be imposed on personal property. A heavy tax on billboards and signs was also urged. The report caused much discussion, but with the death of Mayor Gaynor and a change of administration, the work of this commission was almost entirely barren of practical results.

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[24] Letters from Deputy Comptroller W. T. Childs, dated April 16 and 24, 1915; article in the Baltimore *Sun*, April 25, 1915; and W. T. Childs, "New sources of city revenue," *Business*, August, 1914. In Philadelphia an investigation of special assessments is under way with the object of extending their use.

[25] Report of commissioners of taxes and assessments of city of New York, 1914, p. 5.

One proposal which has been agitated in the city of New York for a number of years is the untaxing of buildings. The Gaynor commission did not consider this a "new source of revenue," and made no recommendation in regard to it. When John Purroy Mitchel became mayor, this problem was pressed upon him, and it was primarily to aid him in determining what should be done with this proposal that he appointed in April, 1914, his committee on taxation. It immediately started an investigation into the probable effects of reducing the tax on buildings and began a study of some other aspects of the financial situation of the city, but, before much time had elapsed, violent changes took place which entirely altered the main problem of the committee.

The shock came with the declaration of war when the city found itself embarrassed in connection with the payment of its foreign creditors. Approximately $80,000,000 was due in England and France and payment was desired in gold. Under the existing conditions in the loan and foreign exchange markets, the problem of meeting these obligations was extremely serious.. A plan was finally evolved, however, whereby a syndicate was formed to furnish the gold to pay off the city's maturing obligations. To accomplish this, one-, two- and three-year notes were issued at 6 per cent interest to the amount of $100,000,000. It can be readily seen that this was an expensive operation. Under normal conditions, the obligations could have been refunded at much lower cost. Thanks to the co-operation of the banks, the city's credit was saved, but it was necessary to look forward to paying off this "war loan" within three years.

Moreover, the situation was made the occasion for a radical change in the debt policy of the city. At the instance of the bankers, the practice of paying for non-revenue-producing improvements by long-term bonds was abandoned. To make the transition easier it was agreed that short-time bonds should be used to some extent for four years: the first year, one-fourth of such expenses to be paid in cash and three-fourths in fifteen-year bonds. Each year an additional one-fourth was to be paid in cash. This policy means, of course, a necessity for increased revenues.

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[26] Report of the Commission on New Sources of City Revenue, p. 14.

In addition, there has been an increase in uncollectible taxes in New York and the war probably must be charged with part of the responsibility for this. The general cost of the debt service is increasing rapidly, as are also the expenses for school and several other purposes.

Meanwhile the finances of the state had begun to cause alarm. The legislature in 1915 decided to levy a direct tax of approximately $19,000,000. As to the necessity for this tax, there is bitter dispute concerning the merits of which it is unnecessary to enter here. The significance for the city is that about 68 per cent of this great sum will be charged to the city in 1916 and must be made a part of the city budget.

The situation then is this: the 1915 budget, in spite of great economies and because of conditions over which the administration had no control, increased about six million dollars—to $198,989,786.52. This raised the tax rate in Manhattan from $1.78 to $1.87. This rate is considered high in view of the full-value assessment, and real estate owners, who have not had a happy time of it during the past few years, are complaining bitterly. The increase in the 1915 budget is not to be compared with the further increase which will be necessary in 1916. It is felt that no great cuts can be made in the estimates, pared as they already are in the 1915 budget. The pay-as-you-go policy then becomes effective and will involve the addition of at least $6,000,000 to the budget and the direct state tax will add approximately $13,500,000 more. Careful estimates put the probable tax rate for 1916 at 2.15. Some prophets foresee a rate of 2.40 within three or four years. Is it exaggeration, therefore, to say that the plight of New York is the most serious of all?

The mayor looks to his committee on taxation for suggestions as to how the great increase in the tax rate can be avoided. The committee has not yet made its report but we have the public utterances of Professor Edwin R. A. Seligman, chairman of the executive committee of the mayor's body of advisors, and these show which way the wind is blowing. On April 20 in addressing a public gathering Professor Seligman said:

> The only thing left for us to do is to find new sources of revenue. Now the fact is that our taxes are as high as they are because we have been raising our revenue from entirely one source. All of our taxes have been on real estate and real estate can stand no more burden. But there is in this city such a thing as a social income, and we have left that untouched. Do you know that from 45 to 47 per cent of the income tax of the United States was raised right here in New York? That is, the people paid nearly one-half of the federal income tax, and yet we say we can't afford to support our city.[27]

Thus the way is paved for the very interesting announcement which Professor Seligman made in his presidential address before the National tax association in San Francisco in August. After reviewing the possibilities of the situation, he registers his conviction that the way out for the city of New York is the development of a new source of revenue in the nature of a municipal income tax. He does not blind himself to the difficulties in the way of such a plan. Indeed his realization of their importance has until recently caused him to oppose strongly all efforts to establish even state income taxes; but, with the establishment of the federal income tax, conditions have been considerably modified, and it is felt that a local income tax may now be tried with a fair prospect for success. Whether the project will enlist the support of the committee on taxation, the municipal administration, and the people of the city, are still unsettled questions. The necessities of the present situation would make it appear probable that unless some more attractive alternative suggests itself, the next few months will see the inauguration of the municipal income tax in New York.

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[27] *New York Times*, April 20, 1915.

It remains to form some estimate of the significance of the various suggestions advanced and to outline the general possibilities in the way of new sources of revenue available for municipalities. The discussion must now necessarily assume a very vague and general form, for conditions vary so radically from city to city as to make more or less absurd definite statements as to what is desirable.

One point on which all will agree is that increased efficiency and economy is the first thing to be striven for. The elimination of waste is a most satisfactory method of increasing resources. Increasing the efficiency of the assessment departments is particularly likely to pay handsome dividends. The administration of our tax laws is in general extremely miserable. Full-value assessments with proper land value and tax maps would in some cases greatly increase revenues. Property owners submit much more gracefully to taxation when they are sure they are all on an equal footing. Increased certainty, even if it be only certainty of fairness, would release funds which are now held as insurance or as "war chests" to fight suspected assessments. As an almost essential antecedent to full-value assessments, however, separation of the sources must be secured. Here is the significance of some of the suggestions from the Ohio cities.

Economy and efficiency, however, are not sufficient of themselves. "Save the pennies and the dollars will take care of themselves" is a useful slogan for the administration, but unfortunately the adage leaves us uninformed as to the proper course of action in case the need is in higher denominations than dollars. New York needs many millions at once and the needs of some of the smaller cities are as great in proportion.

There will be general agreement, also, that little can be done toward securing new sources of revenue until municipalities are freed from restrictions which now bind some of them so closely. It therefore is often necessary, as the first step, to "open up" state constitutions so as to permit the different treatment of different classes of property for purposes of taxation. Until this is done, "classification," as urged in Ohio, is not possible. The experiences in Maryland and several other states with the light tax on intangible property has led many to believe that this plan would in many places tempt from hiding enough of this type of property to increase revenues. The recording tax on mortgages and secured debts may claim for itself the same virtue. Fees for erecting and maintaining bill-boards, etc., might be made to yield some funds, although the revenue from such sources could not be expected to be very great.

The four most promising sources appear to be the following: first, special assessments; second, special land taxes; third, business taxes; and fourth, income taxes. Only a word can be said about each.

Special assessments have been used in certain of the western cities, notably Seattle and Portland, to an extent little realized. In Portland, for example, in 1912 the receipts from special assessments amounted to $3,355,808, nearly as much as the receipts from the general property tax ($4,132,350), and Portland has a population of less than 250,000. In Seattle, special assessments play a still more important part in the financial system, exceeding the general property tax in the amount of the receipts. This form of revenue has earned for itself a bad name in some quarters but there is no doubt that, if carefully administered, great sums can be raised in this manner with satisfactory results both to the property owners and to the city. The Canadian cities can teach us some lessons as to objects for which special assessments may be levied.

The suggestion of the Gaynor commission in regard to an increment tax and the action of Pueblo, Houston, Pittsburgh and Scranton in reducing the tax on buildings, suggests that public sentiment may be veering around to the idea that land should be made subject to a particularly heavy tax. What form such a tax should take depends upon local conditions, but here is a rich field which seems ready for development.

If it were not for the knowledge of the helplessness of most American cities to modify the gereral property tax without a constitutional amendment, there would probably have been long before this time a development of business taxes similar to those of the Canadian cities.[28] When the general property tax proves its uselessness as a gauge of the tax-paying ability of the business community, this seems a logical reform. In Winnipeg, in 1914, a rate of 6⅔ per cent on the rental value of business premises produced nearly a half million dollars ($438,263.40).[29] Winnipeg's population is approximately 200,000. Many cities might find such a tax a welcome relief from the general property tax on stock-in-trade.

The municipal income tax is interesting just now to other cities than New York chiefly as an indication of what the remote future may bring to them. Probably it will appeal to them all as wise to allow New York to try the experiment. Certainly there will be an interested audience.

[28] There has been of course some use of this system in some of the southern cities.

[29] There is dissatisfaction in Winnipeg at present with the business tax but it seems to find its cause in a feeling that there is a discrimination between the retailers and wholesalers in the levy of the tax.

THE JITNEY BUS AND ITS FUTURE[1]

BY WILLIAM J. LOCKE

San Francisco

On a certain morning about nine months ago the residents of one of our Pacific coast cities might have observed an automobile running along the main street bearing a sign announcing that passengers would be carried between certain designated points in the city for the small sum of five cents. On the following morning, instead of one machine they might have seen half a dozen or more, and within a few days following thereafter their numbers were multiplied many times over. Before a month had passed the increase had caused such a congestion in the streets as sorely to try the skill and patience of the traffic police, while for pedestrians, the mere crossing of a main street had become a most hazardous undertaking.

In such a fashion did the "jitney bus" make its introduction into municipal life, bringing in its train many new problems to worry the municipal legislative mind. The nature of the idea was such that it was bound to spread rapidly and before many weeks had passed the "jitney" had made its appearance in nearly all the larger cities of this country and Canada. On March 15, 1915, Andrew Linn Bostwick, municipal librarian of St. Louis, Mo., in a report on the jitney omnibus and its regulation, stated that jitneys had been introduced in over thirty cities ranging in size from 750,000 downwards. It is quite certain, however, that this report did not include the small cities, as by that time the number in which the jitney had made its appearance exceeded that figure in California alone, and at this writing there is scarcely a city of any size in this country where the jitney bus is not operated.

For a while, after they were first introduced, many people looked upon the "jitney" as merely a fad, believing the idea would prove to be impracticable from an economical standpoint. Instead, however, the number of jitneys continued to increase, and the increase in numbers was met apparently by a corresponding increase in patronage. Later the passage of ordinances imposing a license tax and requiring an indemnity bond resulted in many jitney operators quitting the business, while others gave it up on finding the profits under their expectations. Nevertheless, a sufficient number has continued in the business to indicate that the jitney has come to stay.

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[1] In the April issue (vol. iii, p. 290), William Richard Littleton discusses the motor bus and its development. He covers certain points that are also covered by Mr. Locke, but notwithstanding this, we are publishing this second article because it approaches the whole question from a different standpoint and is written by one identified with the section in which the use of the jitney bus has had its conception in this country. Mr. Locke is assistant secretary and counsel of the League of California Municipalities.

A Los Angeles writer has summed up the jitney situation in an interesting manner. In his opinion, the "jitney bus" is a business anomaly—a business failure that is bound to stay; a failure because only rarely can the operator secure enough passengers in a day to pay the operating expense and repair costs on his car, make an adequate allowance for depreciation and pay himself a reasonable wage on a five cent fare. This is admitted by many of the drivers, so it is claimed. What they are really doing is selling the residue value in old cars to the public in nickel installments, living on their cars, if they are their own, or making a bare living from a secondhand dealer, until they can get some kind of a steady job. The men in the automobile trade point out that this kind of people and this kind of cars and conditions will be found in some cities all the time, and that as fast as one goes out of the jitney business his place will be taken by another.

There is no doubt but that the foregoing summary of the situation is correct in a large measure, but that it is not entirely so is evidenced by the fact that companies are being organized in many parts of the country to engage in this new method of transportation. In connection with this phase of the subject, the recent report of the American electric railway association, following a nation-wide and painstaking investigation, will prove interesting, if not instructive. The report says:

> Considering the case of the company that purchases machines and treats the whole matter as a business proposition, we reach a different conclusion.
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> The costs varying with the mileage will be placed at five-eighths of a cent per mile. Other operating expenses to be considered are insurance of all kinds, including injuries and damages, $200 a year; cleaning, inspection and housing, say $100 per year; wages for driver, a minimum of $2.00 a day, or $700 a year; management, 75 cents a mile on the basis of 75 miles a day for 350 days, $195 per car per year. This figure is based on the expense of supervision of one of the largest taxicab companies and probably could not be equaled by a company operating less than 300 cars.
>
> The above operating expenses may be summarized as five-eighths of a cent per car mile plus $1,195 per year. To these must be added $240 for interest and depreciation, and about $5 each for state registration, personal property tax, and public vehicle license. The total thus is $1,450 a year plus five-eighths of a cent per car mile. This includes 8 per cent return on the investment in cars (there will be little other investment necessary) and excluding the return we find the expenses to be $4.05 a day plus five-eighths of a cent a mile. Depreciation is based on 5,000 miles a year and would likely be exceeded, inasmuch as 75 miles a day or 25,000 a year probably will be run. The depreciation estimate of the Ford Company is $200 for 5,000 miles or four cents a mile.

There is no longer any attempt to deny the fact that the "jitney bus" has had a serious effect on the business of the street railway companies. In Los Angeles, for instance, it has been estimated that the loss amounts to $2,000 per day, while in Winnipeg, street railroad traffic has decreased to such an extent since the advent of the jitneys as to necessitate a reduction in the number of street cars, a reorganization of routes, and a contemplated reduction in staff. Reports from Vancouver for the first quarter of the year indicate that the percentage of the gross receipts which the city will receive from the railway companies for 1915 will be from $30,000 to $35,000 less than last year, due to the operation of 350 jitney buses which are now carrying a majority of the passengers who formerly rode in street cars. Increased patronage of the jitneys in Memphis has necessitated a retrenchment on the part of the Memphis street car companies, involving a reduction of 30 per cent in the shop force and a cut of from ten to twenty per cent in the salaries of the remaining employes. Similar retrenchments by the street car companies are reported from Bridegport, Conn., and Grand Rapids, Mich. The San Francisco-Oakland terminal railroads, according to the company's officials, have been losing $500 per day in fares since the advent of the jitney. In Seattle, one company claims a loss of $2,450 daily, while another estimates that it will carry fewer passengers this year by 21,000,000 than it did in 1914, if the jitney competition continues.

One of the principal advantages claimed for the jitney is the fact that the average rate of speed is greater than that of the street car. It cannot be denied that this is an important advantage, which is due to a number of things. In the first place, the jitney carries but a few passengers as compared with the street car and consequently there are fewer stops to be made. Again, should the jitney come upon a slower moving vehicle or some obstacle, it can pass around it, whereas the street car, being confined to its track, must reduce its speed to that of the slower vehicle or wait until the obstacle has been removed.

Notwithstanding the short time since the advent of the jitney, much progress has been made in improving the design and appearance of these new vehicles of transportation. For example, the one used in Winnipeg is quite elaborate and has become very popular. The body inside is 13 feet long by 5½ feet in width. It is protected with storm curtains which may be removed when the weather is good. It has the appearance of an open touring car. Pneumatic tires are used on the forward wheels and solid tires on the rear. The car accommodates eighteen passengers and has spring seats upholstered in leather, which makes very comfortable riding. It is lighted at night by two electric domes in the ceiling. Push button signals are provided which are connected with a buzzer near the driver's seat. At night a green light indicates vacant seats, while a red light is shown when the car is filled.

In San Francisco, a company has been organized to operate a line of motor buses, which are to be constructed after the style of an Irish jaunting car, with two rows of seats running lengthwise, back to back, and an aisle between them. In such a car one may step up into a seat directly from the street and vice versa, without being obliged to climb over the feet of other passengers. Another advantage of this form of construction lies in the fact that the car may be filled or emptied almost immediately. Transparent roller curtains are to be provided for bad weather.

One of the first companies organized to undertake the jitney business was the Jitney service company of Odgen, Utah, which now operates three lines. In Peoria, Ill., the business has been undertaken by an old established concern of which one of the city aldermen is a member. The business in St. Louis, Mo., is handled by the Motor service company, which carries about two thousand passengers a day.

As the jitney continued to increase in numbers, a demand arose from various quarters for more stringent regulation of the business and, with the street railway companies in the lead, petitions were presented to the municipal and state authorities asking for the enactment of legislation to this effect. The Massachusetts street railway association, comprising nearly all of the street railroads in the state, had a bill introduced in the legislature requiring that all corporations formed to transport passengers in automobiles having a seating capacity of eight or more, should have a capital stock of not less than $10,000 for each of the total number of passengers that might be carried in the largest car of the corporation. The bill further provided that all private individuals in the business should file a bond of $500 for each passenger seat, or according to the capacity of the car. As a typical illustration of railroad opposition, it was charged that a company owning and operating the electric railways running between Los Angeles and Pasadena, was instrumental in preventing the Pacific motor bus company from securing permission to operate over a very desirable route between the cities mentioned.

However, opposition was not confined to the street railroad companies. In many instances, their employes, believing their jobs in jeopardy, made vigorous demands for more stringent regulations of the jitney. In Des Moines, for instance, a delegation from the carmen's union was appointed to watch the activities of the council during the time the jitney bus ordinance was under consideration.

There is a wide difference in the amount of license tax imposed on the jitney by various municipalities throughout the country; for example, the annual tax of Joplin, Mo., ranges from $10 for a five-passenger car to $40 for one carrying 26 passengers or over; in Oklahoma City, the annual tax runs from $50 to $150, according to capacity; in Boise from $75 to $150; in Spokane, $2.50 for the original license and $1 for its removal; in Pasadena, $50 to $75, according to capacity; in Des Moines, $15 to $35, according to seating capacity; in Syracuse, $75 to $150, according to capacity; in Fort Worth from $10 to $30; in Oakland all pay $60, and in San Antonio the license tax is $35, and $3.50 extra for each seat over seven.

It is universally conceded that the principal factor in determining the success or failure of the jitney business is the length of route traveled. The American electric railway association, in the report aforementioned, reached the conclusion that the jitney business will be confined to the short hauls, for the reason that the long trips will not pay. This conclusion has proved to be correct and as a result jitneys are taking the cream of the business, leaving the railway companies nothing but skimmed milk. In San Francisco, for example, while the street railway companies are required to carry passengers more than five miles across the peninsula for five cents, the jitneys operate only for one-half that distance.

In California, as in many other states, the street railway companies are obliged to pave that portion of the street lying between their tracks and two feet on either side, and they are calling public attention to the fact that not only are they obliged to submit to the competition of the jitney, but are also compelled to construct and maintain the pavement upon which their competitors operate. It is evident that municipal regulation of the jitney will be obliged to cover the distance to be traveled as well as the route. Otherwise, many of the street car companies will be forced into bankruptcy. Up to the present time, the principal extent of the regulation has been limited to protecting the public from careless or irresponsible drivers, overcrowding, indignities to female passengers, arbitrary change of routes and liability in case of accident. Other regulations cover the questions of route, the territory to be served and the seating capacity of the car. Many ordinances authorize the city council to refuse a license if the territory is already served. In Victoria the route terminates in a district instead of a street, and passengers may be taken to their homes if living within the district.

The legal status of the jitney business has not been clearly determined. In Washington the state public service commission recently decided that the jitneys are common carriers and subject to regulation by the commission. In California, however, the state commission has decided that it has no jurisdiction. In Oregon, the legislature refused to put the jitney business under control of the state commission.

The advent of the jitney has had a disastrous effect on the safety of street travel. In Los Angeles, according to statistics, a sharp increase in the number of accidents was observed coincident with the introduction of this method of transportation. In July, August and September of 1914, street accidents averaged slightly less than 400; in October, the jitneys began to appear, and street accidents ran up to 463, while in

November they reached a total of 601. The number of accidents has increased to such an alarming extent wherever the jitney has been introduced, that the Safety-first federation of America has taken the matter up for special attention and, according to reports, plans for the regulation of the jitney, national in scope, are being prepared by the executive committee of that organization.

Practically all ordinances that have been adopted on the subject of regulation require an indemnity bond ranging from $5,000 to $15,000, although in Washington, D. C., satisfactory assurances of responsibility are all that is required in addition to the annual license fee of $6. A new ordinance of Syracuse, N. Y., imposes a liability bond of $5,000 for injuries received by one person and $15,000 for injuries received by more than one person in a single accident. In Des Moines, vigorous objection was made by the jitney operators to a $2,000 bond, their attorney denouncing such a bond as prohibitory and discriminatory, and calling attention to the fact that no bond was required in many other cases where the nature of the business is hazardous to the public. In Philadelphia, two rival organizations of the jitney operators divided on the question of an indemnity bond, one favoring a $2,500 bond and the other attacking it on constitutional grounds. In Minneapolis, the *Times* took up the cause of the jitney men on the bond question and asked why the owners of *private* cars were not required to give a bond. However, most of the municipal ordinances throughout the country require an indemnity bond ranging from $5,000 for injury to or death of one person, to $10,000 for injury to or death of more than one person, while others require an additional $1,000 bond for possible damage to property.

Should the jitney bus be operated under a permit or a franchise? This is one of the most important questions raised in connection with its operation. The city attorney of San Diego recently held that in his opinion a municipality might prohibit the running of jitneys unless they secured a franchise. Others are of the opinion that a franchise cannot be required. Bouvier's "Law Dictionary" defines a franchise to be "a special privilege conferred by government on individuals, and which does not belong to the citizens of the country by common right," whereas another well-known authority declares that "whatever is of large public concern, so that the want of regulation and control will injuriously affect the public in its general interests, may be the subject of a franchise." This last definition was laid down by the Supreme Court of New York in the case of *People vs. Leow.*[2] In this connection, attention is called to the fact that the Fifth avenue coach line in New York City operated under a franchise granted directly by the state in 1886.

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[2] Vol. 44, N. Y. Supp., p. 43.

In Denver, and also in San Antonio, no person or corporation may operate jitneys without a franchise. An act passed by the California legislature prohibited any person or corporation operating a jitney bus without first receiving a franchise or permit; however, it was not approved by the governor.

Probably the most important distinction between a permit and a franchise is the fact that the former is revocable whereas the latter is not. This being the case, it is likely that the future will see the jitney bus operating under a franchise instead of a mere permit, as sound business principles will restrain capital from investing in an enterprise that depends upon the whim of a city council for the continuance of its existence. Again, operation under a permit necessitates an indemnity bond which is not only expensive and unsatisfactory, but also objectionable for other reasons. The operation of jitney buses by organized companies under a franchise would have many advantages. For example, provision could be made for covering the long routes as well as the shorter and more favorable ones; also, arrangements for transferring passengers from one line to another. The grant of a franchise could be made contingent upon the municipality receiving a share of the profits. Considered in all its phases, the jitney appears to present many attractive inducements for municipal ownership and operation.

There is every indication that the "jitney bus" is the forerunner of the trackless car, something that the world has been looking for for many years. If such is the fact, and it means that the time has arrived when vehicles may be run over a smooth pavement by their own motive power as cheaply as the ordinary trolley car running on a track, then there is certainly cause for congratulation. The greatest single item of expense is the tires, and the invention of a satisfactory substitute for the pneumatic tire would remove absolutely any question as to the success of this new means of transportation.

The elimination of the car track would give our streets a much more pleasing appearance and remove a source of more or less danger, all of which and much more may be said by way of argument for abolition of the poles and overhead wires. The trackless car is speedy and comparatively noiseless. In case of a breakdown it may be run to one side of the street temporarily and the passengers transferred to another car. The whole line would not be put out of commission in any event, and there would be no such thing as a blockade. Again, in case of congestion some cars could be transferred for the time being to adjacent parallel streets. Last but not least, among the many advantages would be the elimination of noise, thereby conducing to better health and to the more peaceful enjoyment of life.

SHORT ARTICLES

THE RAPID INCREASE IN MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURE

BY PROFESSOR RALPH E. GEORGE
Whitman College, Walla Walla, Wash.

THE rapid increase in municipal expenditures has been conspicuous in recent years. The assumption of new activities together with a remarkable expansion of old functions has resulted in enormous expenditures on the part of the large cities. Nor is this increase confined to the large cities alone. Due partly to the desire to imitate the metropolitan district, and partly to the real needs of the communities, the smaller cities have likewise been increasing their payments. This increase of expenditures has been severely criticised. Three lines of attack have been prominent in recent discussions: (1) it is urged that the enormous expenditures are largely due to waste, unbusinesslike methods and corruption; (2) increased taxation as the result of increased expenditure is condemned as bad in itself, thus condemning present increased expenditures; (3) the objects of expenditure are attacked as not being essential or even beneficial to the municipalities. In view of the increasing importance which the municipalities are assuming in financial and social questions, an examination of these arguments is important.

(1) The tendency to increase appropriations, national, state, and municipal, in the opinion of many discloses a weakness in the forms of a democratic government. Present expenditures are considered in large part uneconomic, the results of reckless extravagance. This viewpoint is partly justified by the facts. Duplication of work by different departments; the corruption which has prevailed in American cities; and the tardy adoption of sound business methods and adequate supervision have been responsible for considerable unnecessary expenditures. So far as the increasing expenditures are the result of the above causes, the opponents of large appropriations are correct.

Such objections, however, will not be so forceful in the future as in the past. Business methods are being adopted, greater publicity concerning municipal activities is eradicating corruption and inefficiency in the cities, and a better tone of civic morality is pervading the atmosphere. The very size of the appropriations has furthered reform. Citizens interested in municipal affairs have organized bureaus of municipal research to secure accurate information. These bureaus, together with other civic organizations, have been instrumental in attracting widespread attention to the municipal government. Voters are becoming interested; they are watching the city officials; they are demanding more information.

At the same time, moreover, a change is taking place in the character and ability of the administrative officials. Able men are brought to the city as heads of important departments. Efficiency, not division of the spoils, is becoming their watchword. A successful feature of the European city system is secured when administrative officers are chosen from the ablest men in the field, not from party leaders. In Philadelphia the director of public works is a noted efficiency engineer and chooses for his subordinates the ablest men available. In New York this reform is even more pronounced. Considering the changes now taking place in municipal government, the argument that expenditures should not be increased because they lead to extravagance and corruption will be greatly weakened in the future. Some loss there may always be as a result of popular election of city managers, yet it is doubtful whether such loss is much greater than from inefficiency in the business world. At the most, such waste would need to be great to militate against needed activities carried on by the cities.

(2) For political purposes the argument against increased taxation is probably the most prominent. Increased expenditures mean increased taxation. The latter is unpopular with the taxpayers. Indeed it is unpopular with the entire city electorate, if past elections afford any criterion. In Philadelphia, the organization won a recent councilmanic election after a campaign directed partly against increased taxation. The biggest majorities came from the densely populated wards comprising the largest percentage of non-property holders. The popular feeling against any increase in taxation was sufficiently strong to affect seriously the outcome. Such an attitude is unjustifiable. It ignores the question as to whether the expenditures dependent upon increased taxation are themselves desirable. It is true that taxation is generally a burden. But so is the price charged for clothing. In both cases something is returned for the amount spent. The argument used in the Philadelphia campaign is one long abandoned by economists. Taxation is productive in that the city renders service to the people. The value of these services should determine whether increased taxation is or is not justifiable. The use of the campaign cry, "No increase in taxation" should be condemned as obscuring the real issue—are the proposed expenditures profitable or the reverse? Especially among the more ignorant classes of a city population is such an argument harmful, laying a basis for prejudice which will be difficult to remove later.

(3) The third line of attack would endeavor to demonstrate the lack of wisdom in large municipal expenditures. On this point there is a

wide difference of opinion. The social viewpoint of the individual determines the conclusions reached to some extent. Many services conceded to be useful are still objected to when exercised by the municipality. The determination of this issue involves a study of municipal expenditures. For what purposes are expenditures increasing most rapidly? A marked increase in both total and certain functional expenditures can be noted upon examination.

TABLE I

Percentage of increase in per capita expenditures by cities and by purposes of expenditure 1902 to 1913

	Total Expenditures	Outlays	Interest	General Departments
All Cities..............	44.8	67.7	78.8	33.0
Group I................	39.3	30.9	125.0	33.1
Group II..............	46.3	81.9	48.6	36.5
Group III.............	40.1	382.0[1]	3.0	22.2
Group IV..............	34.7	87.5[1]	21.9	18.2
Group V...............	64.4	94.2	50.3	32.2

Group I—Cities having a population of over 500,000.
Group II—Cities having a population of over 300,000, less than 500,000.
Group III—Cities having a population of over 100,000, less than 300,000.
Group IV—Cities having a population of over 50,000, less than 100,000.
Group V—Cities having a population of over 30,000, less than 50,000.

The above table shows the general trend of expenditures since 1902. The marked increase in outlays and interest payments appear to be largely responsible for the rapid rise in the per capita cost of government. Many extensive public buildings and municipal improvements have been constructed during these years. The increased interest payments are in large part due to the indebtedness incurred for public improvements. But the increased payments for outlays and interest will not fully explain the increase in total expenditures. An examination of the cost of general departments, as shown in table II indicates marked increases in the running expenses of American cities.

It here appears that, although the larger cities in groups I and II are increasing their per capita expenses rapidly, yet the smaller cities are expanding along similar lines. Especially is this true of group V, including cities of from 30,000 to 50,000 population. The tendency to increase expenditures is affecting all cities.

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[1] Certain figures in the 1913 census report were inaccurate. In their place the 1912 figures were used. It is believed that no material difference is caused by this change.

This table and the one following are based upon "Financial Statistics of Cities for 1913," Census, pp. 61, 64; Census bulletin 126, pp. 40; special statements from census bureau, correcting Bulletin 126.

TABLE II

Percentage of increase in per capita departmental expenditures by cities and by purposes of expenditure 1902–1913

	Total	General Government	Police Protection	Fire Protection	Health Conservation	Sanitation	Highways	Charities	Education	Recreation[2]
All Cities....	33.0	39.8	8.7	22.3	66.6	59.1	16.5	32.1	38.0	82.0
Group I.....	33.1	48.7	8.4	10.8	69.2	51.7	21.6	58.5	33.5	88.9
Group II....	36.5	35.9	17.4	45.3	57.7	32.5	46.8	45.3	35.7	66.6
Group III...	22.2	22.2	7.2	14.7	81.2[3]	76.8	.6	27.6[4]	45.5	200.0[3]
Group IV ...	18.2	10.5	10.6	30.8	47.1	29.7	11.9[4]	32.1[4]	34.4	52.4[3]
Group V....	32.2	32.9	19.1	24.0	11.8	97.7	11.1	8.8	45.0	311.1

The two classes of expenditure, education and protection, include nearly one-half the total departmental expense. In group I the proportion devoted to education has remained stationary, but the cost of the police and fire departments has increased much less rapidly than the total. The general expenses of government have had a marked increase, constituting in 1913 nearly one seventh of the total departmental payments. In similar fashion the payments for charity, health conservation and sanitation have greatly increased. Recreation, a comparatively new object of expenditure, is beginning to claim an important position in the budget of group I cities.

In group II the total increase is greater than in group I, but the same functions are not responsible for the increase. Health conservation, fire protection, highways, charities, and recreation show the highest percentage of increase. In group III the rate of increase per capita for total departmental expenditures is much less. In this group, however, a large increase for health conservation, sanitation, recreation, and education may be noticed. Much smaller expenses for charities and highways, together with relatively small increases for police and fire protection partially offset the above increases.

In group IV the most conservative showing is to be found. For recreation, health conservation, sanitation, education and fire protection, the increases are marked. For recreation and sanitation, however, the rate of increase is below that of the other groups and considerable decreases for highways and charities are shown. In group V the most remarkable characteristic is the large increase in expenditures for recreation and sanitation, due partly to the slow development of these functions before 1902. This group leads also in expenditures for schools and police protection.

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[2] Recreation increases are computed from 1903 to 1913, except where noted only to 1912. 1902 was an exceptional year in this respect owing to the large payments made on account of the exposition at St. Louis.

[3] 1912 figures used in preference to 1913 figures as noted under table I.

[4] Decrease in percentage.

The expenditures per capita for all cities are rapidly increasing. The large centers of population seem to be only the leaders in this movement.[5] This increase, however, is taking place largely along certain lines. While all functions apparently require more funds certain ones are taking the lead in the general increase.

Among these expenditures health conservation and sanitation show a high percentage of increase. In every group of cities the combined percentage for these allied functions is much higher than the percentage of total per capita increase. Recreation shows an even higher rate of increase. In each group the payments for this function have increased faster than the total expenditures. The objects for which appropriations have increased most rapidly have been outlays, interest, recreation, health and education. The question as to whether total expenditures will increase at their present rate in the future depends in considerable degree upon the expansion of the above named objects. Some investigation of the probabilities of such increase is accordingly of interest.

The tendency of cities to embark upon large improvements has already been noted. So long as this tendency remains unchecked, the cost of government must unquestionably increase. At the present time poor business conditions are causing some decrease in appropriations for outlays. But if the statements of city officials can be accepted as indicative of the future, this decrease is only temporary. Of the various functions appropriations for recreation have increased most rapidly. Private organizations undertaking this work have found it too great a task for their limited resources. The cities have been forced to undertake it. The popularity of this branch of municipal activity has led to a steady extension of the work. The acquisition and maintenance of public parks and playgrounds are costly, especially in the larger cities which most need such facilities for recreation. In view of the popularity of this function, it is reasonable to assume that expenditure for this purpose will greatly increase in the future.

The appropriations for health conservation and sanitation also bid fair to grow rapidly in the future. A more adequate knowledge of the relation which the city health department bears to the general health and efficiency of the community is causing a careful study of the needs of the city in this direction. Wherever the health department carries on its work efficiently is found a lower death rate and less sickness. Especially is this marked among the more congested districts, where many babies are saved each summer by the ministrations of the municipal doctors and nurses. In the case of education only, group II fell behind the general rate of increase. But in the cities of this group together with those larger in size, the educational system has been severely criticised. Many children have been unable to gain admission to the schools; others, when admitted, are not given adequate training owing to the congested condition of the schools. In most cities the school system needs extension and revision. The prevailing inefficiency of labor is sharply criticised. Improper education and a great influx of ignorant laborers are largely responsible for this condition. In the future, night schools must be established, trade schools introduced more widely and the present educational system made more efficient. Such changes, even with the adoption of more economical administration, will require large appropriation.

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[5] But while the per capita cost has been rising, expenditures do not appear to be increasing rapidly in proportion to wealth. Reports from Minnesota apparently show that wealth increases twice as rapidly as the per capita cost of government. If this be true throughout the United States, much of the criticism of the increasing expenditures has been at fault. Cf. E. V. Robinson's interesting paper in the *American Economic Review*, December, 1913.

Considerations such as these would seem to indicate that the tendency of municipal expenditures to increase will become more pronounced in the future. While during the present depression retrenchment may be the policy, yet with the coming of good times the retrenchment policy will probably be abandoned. The essential issue in determining whether expenditures are justifiable is the productivity of the services to which they are devoted. All expenditures should be judged on the basis of the returns which the community receives from them. The past growth of per capita expenses could probably be justified on this basis.

THE SINGLETAX AND AMERICAN MUNICIPALITIES[1]

BY SAMUEL DANZIGER

Editor, The Public, Chicago

IN A letter published in *The Public* of March 31, 1911, Henry George, Jr., explained that Vancouver, like many other municipalities of western Canada, raised its local revenue by taxing land values only. He then showed that because the tax rate was but 2 per cent on a very low valuation, the city was unnecessarily courting land speculation "with its certain penalty of enormous inflation of land prices, and then a pricking of the bubble and a dead city for a longer or shorter period."

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[1] See article on "The Single Tax and American Municipalities," by Joseph Dana Miller, vol. iii, p. 737.

Commenting on Mr. George's letter, Louis F. Post in the same issue of *The Public* said:

> There is nothing new about the desolating effect which Congressman George predicts for Vancouver if the people of that city content themselves with the degree of land value taxation they have now, while their exemption of improvements progressively stimulates land values. His father gave warning more than thirty years ago, in "Progress and poverty." Observing that in the better developed countries the value of the land taken as a whole is much more than sufficient to bear the entire expenses of government, the author of "Progress and poverty" wrote: "Hence it will not be enough merely to place all taxes upon the value of the land. It will be necessary, where rent exceeds the present governmental revenues, commensurately to increase the amount demanded in taxation, and to continue this increase as society progresses and rent advances." If Vancouver fails to heed this warning, let her not account for the inevitable disaster by criticizing the singletax, of which she now boasts. Her plight will be due, not to the degree of singletax she has adopted, but to the greater degree which in folly she may neglect to adopt.

The warning was disregarded, and the inevitable depression has set in. But Vancouver's citizens are intelligent and have not been misled into putting the blame on the singletax. They see that they are on the right road in taxation matters, even though they do not yet seem ready to extend the system sufficiently to put an end to industrial depression. They have shown this in electing each year a mayor and council in favor of retaining the system. At the municipal election in January, 1915, of four candidates for the mayoralty, two were singletaxers. The two singletaxers received two thirds of the total vote. The successful candidate was L. D. Taylor, locally known as "Singletax" Taylor, who was mayor in 1910 when the system was first adopted. After election Mr. Taylor was found to be disqualified to serve and a new election was ordered. He had the disqualification removed, became a candidate again and was triumphantly elected. So Vancouver's voters have surely made their position clear.

There seems to be a similar situation in the other Canadian cities that have local singletax. None of these has been misled to place the blame for a widespread industrial depression on the advance made in local taxation methods.

The Grain growers' association, the farmers' organization of western Canada, has strongly urged adoption of direct taxation of land values by the Dominion government.

In 1913 the legislature of Pennsylvania by special act provided that in the cities of Pittsburgh and Scranton the assessment for taxation of improvements on land shall be gradually reduced until they will be but half of the assessment on land. A beginning has been made at putting this system in effect. Improvements are assessed at 10 per cent below land values. Though this beginning is very slight, it was sufficient to alarm the big land speculators of Pittsburgh, and these with the help of some local political leaders succeeded in putting through the legislature of this year a bill repealing the measure. The repealer passed in spite of protests of many civic organizations and individual citizens. However, Governor Brumbaugh wisely vetoed it and in his veto statement referred to the fact that the repealer was opposed by a larger group than had been heard on any other bill.

Pueblo, Colorado, adopted a singletax amendment to its charter in 1913. This is not to go into full effect until 1916. For the present year improvements are supposed to be taxed at one half the rate of land values. Unfortunately the tax assessor is hostile, and assessments have not been made as they should. There has consequently been no fair test. This must be remedied and probably will be.

Elections on the question of adopting local singletax have been held this year in Colorado Springs and Denver. In both places the proposition was defeated.

In California, irrigation districts may raise all irrigation expenses by a tax on land values only. A number have taken advantage of this until there is now a combined area of 1500 square miles under this system. Some of the towns in this district, such as Modesto and Oakdale, have advertised the fact that this system prevails. The Oakdale chamber of commerce has been especially active in sharing the advantage the system confers upon the town.

In Houston, Texas, Tax Commissioner J. J. Pastoriza was re-elected in March by a vote of nearly three to one on the issue of continuing the system in force since 1911 under which land values were assessed for taxation at 70 per cent and improvements at 25 per cent. However, the opponents of this system have since secured a court decision declaring it unconstitutional.

In the three states and six cities where the singletax has so far been a political issue, the combined favorable vote has amounted to 454,298.

There are in the United States five settlements, known as singletax colonies or "enclaves" in which the corporation or trustees holding title to the land devote all ground rents to public purposes. Since state laws require taxation of improvements and personal property, the colonies reimburse the tenants from the rents to the amount of the tax the state or county has levied upon them. The remaining part of the rents is used for local purposes. These colonies are Fairhope in Baldwin county, Alabama; Arden near Wilmington, Delaware; Free Acres near Summit, New Jersey; Tahanto near Harvard, Massachusetts, and Halidon, near Cumberland Mills, Maine.

Concerning these a good account is contained in the following letter in *The Public* of May 7:

If all the singletaxers had the preconceived idea of Fairhope, which I possessed before visiting the place, they would probably regard Deferredhope as a more appropriate name for the colony than the one it bears. My surprise and gratification were immense when, a few weeks ago, I set foot on the first location where the land is not regarded as private property. The pier, with its commodious wharf extending over a third of a mile from shore, and along which the rails of the People's railroad extend; the lovely little park with its magnificent live oaks and palmettos; the inn at which we supped that first night, and, above all, the closely settled village, with its numerous dwellings of decidedly substantial character, many of which are surrounded by carefully kept citrus groves or truck gardens; all of these convey to the observer a state of prosperous contentment which no amount of dry-as-dust figures could do. One note that was particularly pleasant is the spirit of democracy which singletaxers have always predicted will result from the abolition of special privilege. I take it that this is due to the fact that in spite of the inequalities in wealth (many residents came to Fairhope in quite comfortable circumstances), the absence of any special privilege has obviated the necessity on the part of any person or group, to arrogate to themselves a special superiority.

Another interesting fact, which I dug out of the old files of the *Courier*, and other records which Mr. Gaston was kind enough to place at my disposal, was this: At the start, the singletax was a mere incident to a lot of more or less communist schemes that the founders of Fairhope had on their program. But one by one these vagaries demonstrated their own inadequacy and so suffered the fate of the unfit. Rather a neat proof of the fact that even devoted enthusiasm cannot prolong the existence of a fundamental fallacy. The original 150 acres on which the most important part of the village of Fairhope is situated, were purchased for $771, and are today valued conservatively at over $100,000. Besides, the village is much more uniformly built up and presents a decidedly more substantial character than does the average town of its size in the south or west.

From Fairhope I went to Arden, which place being founded by artists, conveys the artistic note more than any of the other singletax colonies or enclaves. It is just as Frank Stephens said: "Art cannot find its true expression except where the people are free and their artistic perceptions only then make themselves manifest." Space does not permit a detailed description of this delightful spot, so close to one of our great cities, yet so immeasurably removed from it in an economic sense.

Halidon and Tahanto, the two enclaves founded by Fiske Warren, are also well worth a visit. Here as in the other enclaves, the residents are freed from the payment of taxes on their labor and wealth, and while each man lives upon his own freehold, he has not been forced to pay a capitalized rent to a landlord. Fiske Warren has a plan whereby an enclave having been started, it can grow indefinitely by its own momentum, as a result of the constant increase in land values, which twenty years' experience demonstrates can be counted on with certainty. He went into this at some length and his plan seems to stand every test, but it would require considerable space to enlarge upon it and I defer doing so until some future time.

The following figures mark the growth of the gross and net incomes (after paying taxes and "fixed charges") for the four enclaves:

	Fairhope		Arden	
	Gross Rental	Net Rental	Gross Rental	Net Rental
1904	$990.35	....	....	....
1905	1,520.67	$1,127.77	....	....
1906	2,255.69	1,349.76	....	....
1907	2,172.51	1,229.89	....	....
1908	3,027.65	1,467.13	....	....
1909	3,195.08	1,481.58	....	....
1910	3,499.78	1,277.18	....	....
1911	3,907.28	1,907.71	$908.27	$702.47
1912	4,457.62	1,593.47	1,631.71	1,330.14
1913	5,664.74	1,946.47	1,834.19	1,501.67
1914	5,896.30	2,479.14	1,932.60	1,511.71
1915	5,792.14	1,438.39	2,213.19	1,711.39

	Tahanto		Halidon	
	Gross Rental	Net Rental	Gross Rental	Net Rental
1909	$10.00	$4.00	....	....
1910	66.00	33.00	....	....
1911	152.00	106.00	....	....
1912	180.00	180.00	$48.00	....
1913	633.00	633.00	87.00	....
1914	753.00	385.00	240.00	....
1915	1,737.17	619.46	353.42	$197.72

Thus the entire economic rent taken for public use in the four enclaves (the figures for Free Acres are not available), totals $10,422.50, and after paying off all state and county taxes, there remained at the disposal of the various communities the sum of $3,867.96. In Halidon and Tahanto, in addition to paying the taxes, a definite amount is devoted each year to paying off the original cost of the land, and this charge is to be continued in small payments until the debt shall have been amortized in one hundred years. In Arden this is being done more rapidly, a debt without interest (loaned by Joseph Fels), is being paid off in ten annual installments. The plan of payment adopted in the Fiske Warren enclaves, admits of unlimited expansion in the future. As land values increase, so does the borrowing power of the enclaves, and thus new lands can be acquired, additional land values created and more land purchased from money borrowed thereon. Such a system provides a safe and lucrative investment or annuity for those having surplus funds, and will at the same time help to demonstrate to unbelievers the practicability of the singletax.

It should be said in explanation of the apparent falling off in net revenue of Fairhope for 1915, shown by the figures in the letter, that at the time a suit was pending against the corporation in which the complainant had urged its dissolution, holding that its charter was illegal. This naturally put extra expense on the colony and reduced its revenue. Since then the supreme court of Alabama in a unanimous decision has upheld the corporation.

In his message to the legislature of South Dakota in January, Governor Francis M. Byrne urged submission of an amendment to the constitution that would permit classification of property for taxation. He showed the folly of taxing the man who improves his land more than the one who holds similar land idle. The legislature adopted his suggestion and submitted the amendment. A similar amendment carried at the election in North Dakota last November. At the same time another amendment of the same nature received a majority of votes cast on it at the election in Nebraska but failed to receive the number required by the constitution to carry.

A straight out singletax amendment received 17 votes out of 39 in the Oklahoma state senate last March. In the Delaware house an amendment permitting singletax received 17 favorable votes to 8 in opposition. However 24 affirmative votes were required for passage. In the Texas house a graduated land value tax measure received a majority of eight votes but needed a two thirds vote to carry. In the Arkansas Legislature a similar measure passed the house, but failed in the senate.

The singletax movement is clearly moving onward.

A NEW POLICY TOWARDS DRUNKS AND VAGRANTS[1]

BY MAX WATSON

San Diego, Cal.[2]

THE problem of the vagrant is one of the oldest we have to deal with, affording plenty of opportunity to study the question, and to experiment with methods of handling it. The usual practice of arresting a man for vagrancy or drunkenness, and committing him to a jail for any period of time can only be based on three possible reasons. First, may be considered punishment of the man for the offense with an idea of preventing him from repeating the same. This attitude becomes absurd when we consider that such charges as vagrancy and drunkenness are not crimes, but vices which have been legislated into crimes. Such a man usually has committed no crime, so that any punishment which may be meted out merely has a tendency to make him more careful to avoid arrest or indifferent, rather than to prevent a repetition of the offense, and therefore only serves to make him antagonistic toward society and its representatives.

The second reason is the protection of society by the confinement of these offenders against its laws. This also becomes absurd when we consider that with any number of jails it would be impossible to confine more than one or two per cent of this class at any one time, so that the protection which is offered society by their confinement is entirely insignificant.

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[1] See article on "Municipal Emergency Homes," by Edwin A. Brown, National Municipal Review, vol. iv, p. 75.

[2] City Forester of San Diego. See National Municipal Review, vol. i, p. 428.

The third reason is reforming the individual so that he will not voluntarily continue a vice which makes him a burden upon the community. This is the only point to be sought after, and although it has been considered under our present system it has been applied in such a way that the real object has in most cases been overlooked.

Under more progressive methods where these cases are committed to large farms the fact that the objective point is the re-establishment of the sense of individual responsibility towards society has been largely lost in the maintenance and development of the institution. It would therefore seem in order to meet the question in a rational and logical manner we would best discard all former ideas and thereby eliminate the great stumbling block.

Sufficient study has been made so that we know fairly well what the vagrant is, and what the causes for his existence are. We know also that the only objective point in any method which may be adopted is the tendency toward re-establishment of individual responsibility. No man can be reformed unless the desire for reformation is within, and he must assume the initiative for his own welfare. All that society can do is to help him assume this responsibility. He must not be pauperized either mentally or physically. He must do his own thinking and solve his own problems and wherever it is possible responsibility should be placed upon him.

Taking the channels through which the vagrant and drunk are handled we come first to a consideration of the police and the police department. The policeman is the representative of society, appointed for regulating and assisting it. It is his business to endeavor to make harmonious the relationship between individuals composing society. His attitude should be helpful, not antagonistic, and it should be his duty to avoid or lessen trouble, rather than accentuate it. A policeman should maintain this attitude toward the vagrant and drunk; it should be one of helpfulness toward a vice rather than antagonistic.

Unfortunately it is very difficult to secure men as police officers to assume this attitude. An effort should be made to secure policemen who are fairly well educated and capable of taking a broad view of life. Brains should be emphasized rather than brawn; open mindedness rather than cunningness. It may be rather a startling suggestion, but I believe policemen should be bonded so that they may be held individually responsible for their acts. This would have a tendency to make them far more responsible. In other branches of government where a man has authority he is bonded so that he is personally responsible for his actions. In the case of policemen it is not required.

Every day thousands of men are arrested for drunkenness and vagrancy with insufficient reasons as is shown by the large number who are discharged immediately or without trial. Of course in the case of drunkenness such an arrest is often necessary to protect the man, but with the different attitude of police such cases could be handled through municipal lodging houses, rather than the drunk cell. Considering that arrest is thought necessary such prisoners should be under police jurisdiction only until they have been brought to headquarters, where they should immediately come under other supervision. The usual methods of handling prisoners in city jails tends to destroy a man's selfrespect and responsibility. It is a deplorable fact that in most cases the attitude of the police department is one of antagonism toward anyone who may come into their hands and a person has only to witness the so-called lineups in the morning at any city jail to realize how destructive this attitude must be toward any feeling of responsibility for the welfare of society which the prisoner may have.

It would be necessary to have officials at the jail who would pass immediately upon the justice of any arrest which might be made by a police officer, and settle, if possible, without the formality of a trial any causes which may have led to the arrest.

The next step to be considered is the police court. The usual police court of our country is a "six days, six dollars" affair which grinds through the cases presented in a machine-like manner with no consideration of causes and effects. Certainly the police judge, as he hears what little evidence that may be presented, cannot in so short a time take into consideration the factors and environment which may have a bearing on the case; neither can he consider what punishment or further treatment might be necessary. His authority should be limited to the question of legal cause of action, and he should not have authority to definitely fix any sentence or method in which prisoners should be handled.

If in the opinion of the police judge the cause is one for legal action, the prisoner should be turned over to authorities competent to prescribe the method of further treatment and determine under what class the prisoner should be considered. At the hearing a careful record should be kept of all evidence offered, or any points which would be of value in future consideration of the case. These records should be made by a representative of the institutions through which the prisoner is to be handled and should not be made by an official directly connected with the court.

We may here consider the different classes under which most vagrants and drunks will come and the methods of handling distinctive classes.

First are the defectives, the individual lacking in normal mentality. If a defective is a menace to the welfare of society, and shows no reason for believing that he will become anything else he should be cared for accordingly. It is not logical to confine him for a certain period of time with an idea of protecting society from the menace which he may represent and then return him to society without having lessened the menace.

If there is any logic in confining him at all, the confinement should certainly be continuous. Cases of this kind, therefore, should be handled in such a way that the individual would be as little burden as possible. This could best be accomplished through the permanent confinement of these defectives upon large farms under constant supervision. Their labor could be utilized in some way to lessen the burden upon society.

Next we consider the dipsomaniac. He is the victim of drink through some mental disorder which manifests itself through the use of alcoholic stimulants. This is a disease very similar in many ways to epilepsy, and has to be treated largely with the same methods. The dipsomaniac has no special craving for alcoholic stimulants and these periods of drunkenness are directly due to nervous disorders. We are not justified in considering the dipsomaniac in any other light than that of a man suffering from disease, and we should adopt that attitude in handling such cases. These men should be treated in institutions especially designed for their care, and although it may be impossible entirely to eliminate these periods it is often possible to lessen their frequency, and in many cases divert them from being manifested in the use of alcoholic stimulants.

An institution for handling these cases cannot be better situated than upon a large tract of land where inmates can have proper mental treatment and environment. Among institutions in this country handling the problem with results is the state institution of Massachusetts for the treatment of inebriety under the direction of Dr. Irwin H. Neff. Here inmates are considered as patients, and the sole endeavor is to return them to society improved so that they may assume a responsible position.

The third class is the drunkard whose craving for alcoholics tends to lessen his capacity as a responsible citizen. This man may be a good and willing worker, but the created appetite for liquor has almost entirely destroyed his usefulness. There is a decided distinction between the dipsomaniac and the drunkard, one is due to an inherited predisposition, the other to the acquisition of a habit. The main point to be considered in these cases is that drunkenness is a mental condition, and in order to overcome it something must be substituted in the mind of the individual for alcoholic stimulus. Dr. Neff in his Boston address, June, 1914, says: "There is no known drug which can permanently eradicate the desire for drink." All the good which any drug cure for drunkenness can accomplish is the powerful mental suggestion given the patient through taking the cure—that he is cured. Therefore it is for us to substitute wholesome and stimulating ideas so that there is no room left in the mind for alcoholics. In short, we may say, that a man is a drunkard because under existing conditions he has no reason powerful enough to be substituted for the idea of intoxication. Certainly we cannot expect to better this man's condition, unless we arouse latent forces and ambitions. The confinement of this class of men under the usual environment, for a time destroys the sense of responsibility and leaves them a greater menace to society and themselves. These statements may seem theoretical and impractical, but as an answer we can say that anything which does not tend towards this condition is not even worth trying and simply aggravates the case.

In no way can this necessary substitute be given so well as in bringing the man in contact with the soil and encouraging a wholesome mode of living combined with proper environment. Simply giving a man work upon a farm is not helpful as many of the worst drunkards are those employed more or less regularly in the farming occupations.

The fourth are those who have lost all purpose in life, largely through continuous periods of unemployment and economic conditions. These men are commonly classed as vagrants. In many cases they do not care to work, and they continue to exist instinctively. This class is more or less addicted to the use of alcoholics, but we may consider this as a secondary, rather than a primary cause of their condition, and any punishment for the vice of vagrancy would tend to accentuate, rather than lessen it. With this class again we must work toward re-establishing individual sense of responsibility. The only thing which can possibly benefit the individual is the acquiring of a healthy mental stimulus, a purpose of existence. Many of these men have forgotten how to work and have ceased to feel responsibility. A treatment through which responsibility is placed upon them, and education along different lines of work given, is the only beneficial method. Wholesome work on a farm with proper surroundings is the most practical and logical method.

The next step is the working of such farms. These should be under the direct supervision of state authorities. This would eliminate the iniquitous practice still so prevalent where different counties try to throw the burden of these classes upon each other. It would also insure uniformity of method and possibility of greater progress. All commitments to these farms should be with indeterminate sentences. This would cause the men to realize that the length of their stay would depend entirely upon the progress they made. This would avoid the mental pauperization which is bound to occur when a definite period of commitment is stipulated. The superintendent of the institution should have the power to parole at any time, and to grant any reasonable request for a hearing from anyone desiring it.

All possible responsibility as to conduct and government should be placed upon the inmates, that the place may be self governing as far as possible. There should be no bars or means of actual confinement; as restriction tends to lessen responsibility. These liberties can at all times be regulated by those in authority. It has proven that in all cases where responsibility has been placed upon such individuals there is far less difficulty in management and greater results.

Another important feature is that all inmates should receive a wage. This gives them a sense of independence. It has been found where a wage has been paid the result in labor accomplished more than compensates for the additional expense. In cases where the man confined has a family depending upon him it should be turned over to them. In case of a single man there might be restrictions such as would prevent former associates seeking him out.

In selecting land for an institution of this kind there are certain important features to be considered. The land should be unimproved so that there would be an abundance of rough labor. The farm should also be located in a place where there is a possibility of developing various industries, such as making brick or rock quarries. The land should have value for agricultural purposes so that when developed all branches of agriculture might be pursued. All possible industries should be fostered and this would give a diversified field of labor making it possible for the inmates to be given those occupations to which they were best suited.

These institutions should be closely in touch with municipal lodging houses and employment bureaus; and everything possible done to assist the man in re-establishing himself after leaving the farm. This follow-up system should be an important feature of the work.

THE DANGER IN A MULTITUDE OF ORGANIZATIONS

BY J. LIONBERGER DAVIS[1]

St. Louis

FOR over half a century there has been a striking growth of public opinion and a consequent spread of democracy. Among the remarkable phenomena which have accompanied and made possible this development have been the changes in transportation, communication, education and printing. The rapid growth of cities and a changed industrial system have brought forth conditions which are complex and confusing. An individualistic period has been succeeded by one of greater co-operation. With this development has come a tendency to form groups of likeminded persons who find co-operation necessary. At present this tendency has resulted in a multiplicity of organizations in city, state and nation.

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[1] Mr. Davis was graduated from Princeton in 1900. He has served as vice-president of the St. Louis civic league; as chairman of the Conference of federations, and as chairman of the Central council of social agencies. He has also served as secretary of the first Workmen's compensation commission appointed by Governor Hadley in 1910, and as a member of the Missouri code commission appointed by Governor Major in 1914. He is one of the vice-presidents of the American association for labor legislation, so he writes out of a personal knowledge of the situation.—EDITOR.

It seems hardly credible that it was not until the middle of the last century that the present practice of organizing leagues, associations, societies, etc., began. Trevelyan in his "Life of John Bright" comments upon the significance of the Anti-corn Law League as a new departure in the method of conducting propaganda for a movement for the common good.

Formerly, general co-operative efforts were made through state and church, but recently there has been a tendency to create more and more agencies until at present many functions which might well be performed by either state or church are being carried on by a large and increasing number of other organizations. The state itself has become complex, lacking unity and co-ordination. The church is now divided into many churches and sects. Many of the functions once performed by the church are undertaken by charitable and social agencies, which are constantly multiplying. In business there has been the same development. There are corporations innumerable and labor organizations without number. Duplication of effort, jurisdictional controversies and confusion have resulted. The very complexity of present day life and the great number of organizations have caused many men and women to scatter their efforts and dissipate their energies.

Paradoxical as it may seem, organizations have in many cases hindered or prevented effective organization and co-operation. Their very numbers have caused confusion. It might even be said that individualism has invaded co-operative effort and that each group has become a law unto itself.

In the field of civic, social and charitable work the number of organizations has increased to such an extent that there is a serious duplication of effort and a waste of time and money, which have reached such proportions that many people are being confused and are losing interest in such work. Many splendid men and women are scattering their efforts by serving in numerous organizations or are creating a false impression by permitting the use of their names.

If the names which are marshalled on the literature of those organizations with such impressive numbers are examined it will be found that frequently men and women are either permitting their names to be used without even a cursory knowledge of the societies' activities, or that some persons have an almost superhuman capacity for being all things to all men. In the business world we find a similar condition. It is not uncommon for one man to be a director in numberless corporations. How little such directors really direct is known to every business man. The number of business enterprises which have started with impressive lists of well known men as directors and have later failed are eloquent arguments for concentration and warnings against scattering of effort. Superficiality has been a characteristic of many phases of American life, and in business, as in civic and social service, conditions have been very similar. Men of cunning in business have capitalized the names of well meaning but complacent men of prominence. Men of enthusiasm in civic or social work have likewise gained support by using the names of equally complacent persons who lend their names for such purposes.

Frequently an organization is formed to accomplish a definite object, but later is perpetuated for the benefit of one or more of its officials. There are not a few instances in which zealous enthusiasts enlist a following for some cause which may be untimely or unnecessary, or which could be served far better by existing organizations. Established societies are often weakened by the splitting off of part of their membership, and confusion and duplication of effort, if not actual antagonisms, result.

It has been said by one acute observer that whenever two or three are gathered together in the name of any cause there in the midst of them is a president and a secretary and treasurer; and by another that the chief business of most active men and women is to sit on committees and attend meetings.

An analogy might be drawn between the lure of the printed page and the temptation to become a member of a number of societies. The active man is almost submerged by the mass of printed matter in newspaper, magazine, pamphlet and report; and in addition is overwhelmed by appeals from local and national organizations. Might not the old adage "read much but not many books" be paraphrased by saying "serve much but not on many committees?"

A glance at a partial list of national organizations will disclose the present situation. The following are selected as examples of the tendency to create and maintain organizations, many of which are unquestionably useful, but some of which are surely unnecessary.

American academy of political and social science
American political science association
National municipal league
League of American municipalities
Academy of political science
American economic association
The American city bureau
American society of municipal improvements
American civic association
National civic federation
National civic alliance
Civic league of America
American civic reform union
National reform association
The short ballot organization
American proportional representation league

National voters' league
National civil service reform league
Department of surveys and exhibits of the Russell Sage foundation.

National education association
National society for the study of education
League for political education
Society for the promotion of training for public service. (Now being organized)

American social hygiene association
American school hygiene association
Society of sanitary and moral prophylaxis
American public health association
American association for the study and prevention of infant mortality
National organization for public health nursing
Committee of one hundred on national health
National first aid association of America

North American civic league for emigrants
Committee for emigrants in America
National liberal immigration league
National American federation for the promotion of sane and liberal immigration laws.

Playground and recreation association of America
National child welfare exhibit association
Department of child helping of the Russell Sage foundation
National child welfare league
National child labor committee
American association for labor legislation

American school peace league
American association for international conciliation
American peace society
American league to limit armaments
American peace and arbitration league
American society for judicial settlement of international disputes
Church peace union
World peace foundation
Women's peace party
The league to enforce peace

When it is remembered that in addition to these there are medical associations, bar associations, chambers of commerce, etc., and societies to prevent and cure special diseases, it will be seen that a multitude of organizations bewilder and confuse and must result in dissipation of effort and lack of efficiency. Should not a survey be made of the field covered by the national organizations so that greater co-operation can be brought about and unnecessary duplication of effort and confusion minimized or prevented?

In many cities there have been attempts to survey the field of charitable and social effort for the purpose of promoting co-operation and of preventing duplication. Such attempts were made necessary because of the waste and confusion caused by large numbers of local societies. The reaction against all such societies because of their numbers was seriously injuring the capacity of useful agencies and in some communities the municipality has undertaken the task of listing and approving those organizations which are performing a useful function. In Los Angeles the city has gone so far as to require an organization to be approved by a municipal board before it is permitted to solicit funds. In other cities commercial bodies have adopted the plan of endorsing approved charitable and social agencies, hoping thereby to encourage useful organizations and discourage all others. This action on the part of commercial bodies has been taken to protect their members from the constant and persistent solicitation for contributions which is carried on by the army of solicitors for the multitude of societies. In Cleveland there is a federation for charity and philanthropy which was established in 1913 "for the purpose of assisting and harmonizing the work of charitable and philanthropic organizations in Cleveland and vicinity." A committee of the Chamber of commerce had reported that the funds contributed to such organizations were given by a small number of persons and corporations whose numbers steadily decreased even though the amount contributed increased. A federated plan of giving was worked out with a resulting increase in the number of contributors and in the amount given. Better co-operative relations among the many organizations followed. In St. Louis nearly sixty agencies formed a central council of social agencies in 1912 for the purpose of promoting co-operation and preventing duplication. The council also acts as an advisory body with respect to new work or new organizations. It is making a survey of the local field of social effort and is creating standards of service. Its findings and recommendations are used by the Business men's league when applications are made to it for endorsement. As a result of this movement there have been consolidations of societies whose work overlapped; some have been dissolved, and several attempts to form new organizations have been prevented. The most important result has been better service with less expenditure of time and money and far less confusion. In the national field the same general situation demands similar treatment.

While a censorship or blue-sky law may be impracticable, it might be possible for a directory to be made up by some body having the confidence of the public which could at least give correct information about the numerous organizations seeking the support of the people. Whenever such a course of action has been carried out in local fields there has been a noticeable reduction in the numbers of organizations, due to consolidations or eliminations resulting from lack of support. The remaining organizations have been strengthened and in many instances the local governmental agencies have enlarged their service.

Is it not time to call a halt in the formation of organizations and plead for greater concentration? Would not greater progress be made if a larger part of the splendid enthusiasm for the common good were devoted to the service of all through the older channels of state and church? Many thoughtful persons believe that if more active interest were taken in the ordinary processes of government and less time were consumed in what has been called social and civic service far better results for all could be obtained. The functions of government are increasing. Many of the tasks which confront us can be accomplished far better through the power of government than by private co-operative effort. The war on poverty, disease, vice and crime must be waged by a united nation to be really effective. Justice must be made to prevail, and justice cannot come from a part of the people, but must come from all. To combat giant evils requires resources greater than private means can supply.

An eminent expert in municipal government has said that about 3 per cent of its functions are policy making and about 97 per cent administration. It would hardly be extravagant to say that the interest of the average citizen is 97 per cent in policy making and 3 per cent in administration. What is needed in public service and in social and civic work is more interest in the every-day tasks which must be performed if substantial progress is to be made. There is little hope for substantial improvement in national, state and community life unless there is a greater participation in the ordinary processes of government. Governmental machinery must be perfected and competent officials selected for its administration and operation. The more this is done the more possible will it be for all to co-operate effectively for the common good and the less will we be enticed into this and that extra-legal organization with their tendencies to scatter effort.

That there is a need for a certain amount of co-operative effort outside of government is conceded, of course. Many movements are initiated by a few which merit and receive the support of all. Some organizations perform functions which at present cannot be performed effectively by the state, and obviously there are many organizations which have objects which are not the concern of more than a limited number of people. It is clear, too, that many of the problems of life are individual and have no relation to the subject under discussion. All co-operative effort is or should be directed towards the end of making possible a full and free development of personality.

Some organizations are formed to meet an emergency while others have for their object the spread of information. Many organizations are in effect recruiting agencies through which are enlisted many soldiers for the common good. The question of the usefulness of any organization is clearly one of expediency. If it promotes better co-operation and does not undertake functions which existing public or private agencies can perform, it is justified if the work it undertakes is necessary.

Those who are asked to support an organization should determine, if possible, if it will perform a useful service which no other organization can or will undertake, and they should be sufficiently interested in its objects to devote the necessary time and money to support its work, and not merely lend their names.

The recent tendency toward greater co-operation among groups should be encouraged in the hope that gradually greater concentration upon the problems of modern society may be made possible. That there is such a tendency towards greater co-operation is evidenced by the formation of federations, councils, and conferences. There have been many instances in which two or more organizations have co-operated to carry on special activities. Consolidations have been urged for the purpose of unification of effort in such fields as that of the public health, and in other activities consolidations have been effected.

The remarkable growth of public opinion and of democracy are the amazement of the last half century. Never before has the average man been as interested as he is to-day in questions affecting the life of the community. But this interest is likely to lead many far afield and away from the straight and narrow way unless it is directed and concentrated upon fundamental questions. If, however, the attention of an enlightened people can be focused and concentrated upon those problems which affect the life and labor of the nation, and upon the relations between nation and nation throughout the world, democracy will be rescued from one of its greatest dangers, which comes from the confusion caused by the complexity of modern life, which co-operation and organization may diminish, but which is increased by a multitude of organizations.

THE SUPPRESSION OF THE SMOKE NUISANCE

BY E. P. ROBERTS[1]

Cleveland

YOUR question as to what in my judgment "have been the more important developments along the line of the suppression of the smoke nuisance in cities" is difficult to answer because, in my opinion, smoke abatement is being obtained not by one or more preponderatingly important developments, but the application of engineering design to each case, rather than special invention; and adequate construction followed by correct operation, and "public demand" being the force which has caused such activities.

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[1] Mr. Roberts, who is a consulting engineer, was commissioner of smoke abatement in Cleveland, Ohio, from 1913 to 1914. Prior to which he was Chairman of the Cleveland chamber of commerce committee on smoke abatment. He is a member of the American society of mechanical engineers and also of the Institute of electrical engineers, and of the American electrical railway association and past president of the Cleveland engineering society.

Some of the lines of recent development have been as follows:

First: Ascertaining damage caused by smoke, and informing the public as to same.

Second: Increasing realization of the fact that smoke abatement is an engineering problem.

Third: An increasing appreciation by those who design fuel combustion plants in which bituminous coal is to be used, as to the necessity, if complete combustion and practically smokeless operation is to be obtained, of adequate draft (not only at the stack but also at the grates), a large combustion chamber at high temperature, adequate flame travel, and, especially for hand firing, arches, piers or other structures, to deflect and mix the gases and air.

Fourth: Increasing use of automatic stokers *properly set.* In cities where, to some extent, smoke abatement has been obtained, it is becoming appreciated that no apparatus is "fool proof" and that the general design must be correct and based on consideration of the character of coal and the character of service. A recent government bulletin makes a statement to the effect that a poor stoker properly set is better than a good stoker improperly set, from which it may be inferred that the general engineering design is more important than the specific apparatus.

Fifth: In connection with steam locomotive operation, the development of an underfeed stoker. In connection with locomotives in roundhouses, the development of a washing process, and the use of a house steam line for blowers and jets.

Sixth: In connection with bituminous coal as fuel for metallurgical purposes, the development of the use of powdered fuel.

NOTES RELATIVE TO EACH OF THE ABOVE STATEMENTS

First: To obtain smoke abatement there must be a sustained public demand.

To obtain and maintain public demand each individual must be informed as to the damage to the community *and especially to him,* which results from smoke.

So to inform the public, requires that some organization of local standing investigate and report, and to maintain the demand requires that such organization maintain its activity, ascertain what is and is not being done and why, the methods and efficiency of the city smoke abatement department, the reasonableness of its rules, regulations and procedure, and the decisions of the court. A "well informed" demand is necessary; it is too much to expect that the public will be "well informed," but those who create and maintain the demand should be of such standing that the public will have confidence in their statements.

The Cleveland Chamber of Commerce committee on smoke abatement in 1909 was helpful as to informing the public as to the loss from smoke. The recent bulletins issued by the University of Pittsburgh, as the result of a $40,000 investigation, are a striking example of obtaining and furnishing information.

The Chicago smoke inspector's reports have been helpful in Chicago and elsewhere. Possibly, especially in Chicago, they would have carried less weight if the statements and the work of the department had not received the backing of a strong commission, headed by an unusually active and well-known business man, and also if the public had not known that such was the fact.

A "demand" for smoke abatement may make it a live subject for the newspapers. And therefore free and, perhaps, favorable advertising become available. As a result of the cumulative effect, of public demand, civic organizations representations and newspaper comment the administration "sees its way" to provide at least approximately sufficient funds for the purpose, and is likely to decide that, from every standpoint, it is a wise expenditure and will not be adversely criticised. In addition such legal action as is necessary is obtainable, including legislative and disciplinary action. In a talk before the Cleveland Chamber of Industry November 10, 1914, I stated:

"What the community wants, demands and keeps on demanding, is what it will get from its city servants, *and is also what its city servants can give it.* This applies to the administration, the council, the subordinate executive offices, and, possibly, to the courts."

Second: Increasing realization of the fact that smoke abatement is an engineering problem.

To obtain results, engineers, observers and a clerical force are necessary. The chief should be a competent engineer of personal and professional standing. A competent engineer requires not only a reasonable salary, but also, of equal, if not greater, importance, such conditions as will enable him to obtain results. The public, or one or more civic organizations, or a commission, must not only obtain the demand, but also keep in touch with the facts, give publicity to same and maintain it. Self consciousness of duty performed is important; but recognition of such fact is desirable, and may be vital to success. Adverse criticism is to be expected; but the public should be well informed as to the facts by those whom they will not consider partial. It is difficult for the chief to preserve his enthusiasm and to maintain enthusiasm in his subordinates unless work well done is so recognized.

Third: An increasing appreciation by those who design fuel combustion plants in which bituminous coal will be used, as to the necessity, if complete combustion and practically smokeless operation are to be obtained, of adequate draft (not only at the stack, but also at the grates), a combustion chamber at high temperature, adequate flame travel, and, especially for hand firing, arches, piers or other structures, to deflect and mix the gases and air.

Although certain general principles must, as in all engineering work, be applied, nevertheless, if the best results are to be obtained, each case is a special study. Theoretically the offender should obtain his own advisor; but practically there are few specialists on smoke abatement and, therefore, all smoke inspection or abatement offices must, to a considerable degree, act as advisory engineers. Advice cannot be given until the conditions are investigated and to do so requires time. Merely noting violations and arresting offenders has not and, for some time to come, will not prove satisfactory. Abatement by prevention, due to requiring proper design of new plants and assistance in redesigning existing plants, and advice as to operation will bring results. In some cases legal action is necessary, in order to force reconstruction and proper care, and the result of such action should discourage the continuance of smoke not only on the part of the offender but also by others. During 1912–'14 (mainly '13–'14) the new and reconstructed boiler plants in Cleveland totaled 676 boilers—95,729 h. p. Few of these plants violate the smoke ordinance often, if at all.

Fourth: Increasing use of automatic stokers *properly set.* In cities where, to some extent, smoke abatement has been obtained it is becoming appreciated that no apparatus is "fool proof" and that the general design must be correct and based on consideration of the character of coal and the character of service.

A good fireman is essential, but the means furnished to him should be proper for the purpose.

In a general way no patented apparatus is necessary, but sometimes apparatus which is patented may be helpful, if it is chosen with reference to the character of the coal, rate of combustion, degree of variableness of load, etc. What is very satisfactory in one case may be a failure in another. There is probably no condition for which to obtain the best results, competition between manufacturers of the same class of apparatus is not obtainable.

Some stokers and boilers make a better combination than others, not because of being better individual units, but because they can be better set relative to each other, or better "hitched" together to make a balanced team. Stokers are advisable for any boiler exceeding 150 h. p. There must be team work and a competent driver. A good driver may get more out of a poor team than will a poor driver out of a good team. It is advisable that both be good.

Fifth: In connection with steam locomotive operation, the development of an underfeed stoker. In connection with locomotives in round-houses the development of a washing process. Improvement of locomotive operation in Cleveland has resulted from better equipment (arches, jets and blowers and a few stokers), better instruction and supervision, and stricter discipline.

The following shows the percentage of smoke during six months' periods in Cleveland. As several thousands readings were taken the percentages are approximately correct and properly indicate comparative results, as each locomotive seen by the observer is recorded.

	Average Per Cent		No. of Readings
Second half 1912,	6.7,	Ringelmann chart basis,	463
First “ 1913,	4.3,	“ “ “	1,566
Second “ 1913,	3.5,	“ “ “	2,022
First “ 1914,	1.6,	“ “ “	2,190
Second “ 1914,	1.4,	“ “ “	2,479

An underfeed stoker is, I believe, the only locomotive stoker yet developed which is successful from the smoke standpoint.

The round-house proposition is a very difficult one. Considerable improvement in Cleveland has resulted from the use of semi-bituminous coal or coke for starting fires the use of house steamline for blower, and one road is now using its standard steam jets obtaining steam from the house line (suggested by the writer), which has proved very helpful. At present, in my opinion, the most successful, from the smoke standpoint, is a washing process, such as used by the L. S. & M. S. R. R. at Chicago.

Sixth: In connection with bituminous coal as fuel for metallurgical purposes, the development of the use of powdered fuel and certain types of stokers.

Many metallurgical furnaces present very difficult features, both in fact and because of the natural opposition of the men to any change which, they fear, may affect the output, as usually they work on a tonnage basis.

Smokeless operation, using bituminous coal, requires excess air. Many processes require a reducing flame, necessitating deficiency of air. Secondary combustion beyond the reducing section is difficult to obtain. The inertia on the part of owners and men is great. I expect in the near future considerable improvement without recourse to new apparatus or special fuel. For some purposes and in plants using considerable fuel, powdered coal has proved successful. The greater use of gas is to be expected. The development of electrical precipitation of all suspended matter in gases probably has a future, especially for certain classes of fuel combustion plants.

In conclusion—Smoke Abatement is a subject in which I am deeply interested and I thank you for giving me an opportunity to make a few statements relative thereto. As Chairman of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce Committee on Smoke Abatement for several years prior to 1912, my interest in smoke abatement commenced long before I became officially connected with the work, and has not ceased now that I have returned to my work as a consulting engineer. During a recent visit to one of the larger cities in the south I noticed an invitation by the chamber of commerce "Add to our Smoke Stacks." I filed a protest.

THE NEW YORK CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

BY CHARLES A. BEARD
New York

I

IT CAN hardly be said that the New York convention of 1915 was the product of a crying demand for constitutional revision. If the vote on the referendum calling for a new constituent assembly is to be taken as a just measure of popular interest, the overwhelming majority of the people were indifferent about the matter. It is true that there was a decided improvement in the popular vote on candidates for membership in the convention, but that may be taken as representing the normal enlargement of the vote which results from the work of party organizations and the general interest in personalities as contrasted with measures. All in all, the people of New York were reasonably satisfied with the frame of government established by the convention of 1894, and the calling of a new constituent assembly was in the main the work of partisan leaders.

Normally, the question of calling a convention would not have been submitted until 1916, but the Democrats, overcome by a false sense of security, after the Republican collapse of 1912, decided that the time was ripe to repay the Republicans for their gerrymander of 1894 and to write a constitution of their own. Accordingly, they advanced the date of submitting the question, threw the weight of the party organization in favor of it, and carried the day by a painfully small margin—the legality of which was seriously questioned. Then, to their deep chagrin, the Republicans showed a surprising resiliency and sprang back into power with an astounding vigor, electing an overwhelming majority of the delegates—116 Republicans to 52 Democrats. Moreover, it was the conservative wing of the party that was returned to power—the group represented by Mr. Root, Mr. Barnes, Mr. Wickersham, Mr. Stimson, and other leaders who had taken a decided stand against the "progressive" tendencies of 1912. In other words, according to all outward signs, the popular mandate represented by the election of delegates called for no radical changes in the accepted institutions of New York government, except possibly in the state administration and the position of the cities, for both party organizations had endorsed the short ballot and home rule for cities. The New York *Times* doubtless voiced the sentiment of most of the New York voters when, early in the spring, it mildly suggested that, under all the circumstances, the convention was not authorized to make any important adjustments and should perform its thankless task speedily, leaving the state in peace.

Indeed, for a time, it appeared that the convention might even regard itself as instructed by events to undo the somewhat radical amendment of 1913 enlarging the police power of the legislature after the decision of the Court of Appeals in the workmen's compensation case. It was early announced that Mr. Barnes, as chairman of the committee on legislative powers, had prepared an amendment which would cut away from the law-making body the power to enact most of the measures coming under the general head of "social legislation." Indeed, there were not a few ready to prophesy that the convention, like the voters, was in a mood for "re-action" rather than "standing pat."

II

In spite of the signs unpropitious to changes of any kind, except possibly a reversion to former type, various citizens' associations in the state began, early in the year, to discuss the question of constitutional amendment from the angles of their several interests. The Short Ballot Organization, which, since its organization in 1910, had carried on a forceful propaganda in favor of simplified administration and had been largely instrumental in creating the public sentiment represented by the party endorsements, was soon in the field with its program. The Association for Labor Legislation and representatives of trade unions gave attention to the problems of labor legislation and prepared their measures for submission to the convention. The City Club, the Municipal Government Association, and the Mayors' Conference, which had for some time been carrying forward the agitation for municipal home rule, likewise reduced their proposals to order for the consideration of the delegates.

The general matter of state administration and finance was taken up, especially by the Bureau of Municipal Research. In connection with the state Department of Efficiency and Economy, the Bureau prepared an elaborate analysis of the entire administrative structure of the state which was published officially under the title of "Government of the State of New York—Organization and Functions." This volume described in the most minute detail all of the divisions, departments, commissions, and other branches of the state administration and presented precise information as to functions, officers, and salaries.

On the completion of this survey, the Bureau of Municipal Research was asked by the constitutional convention commission (a body created by the legislature to collect data and materials for the use of the convention) to prepare a critical "appraisal" of the state government on the basis of the fact-report previously published. To this call for help the Bureau responded by the publication of a volume entitled "The Constitution and Government of the State of New York" (Number 61 of the series "Municipal Research" for May, 1915). In this volume the Bureau sharply criticised the chaos now existing in state administration and called attention to the many sources of waste and inefficiency.

Instead of confining its criticism to matters of mere administrative organization, the Bureau declared that what was needed was a somewhat thorough-going reconstruction of the entire system along the following lines:

1. The consolidation of the innumerable offices and bureaus under a few responsible officers appointed by the governor and recognized as his official advisers.
2. The establishment of a state budget to be initiated by the governor and subject to reduction but not to increase by the legislature; with the proviso that appropriation measures introduced by private members should receive a two-thirds vote in order to pass.
3. The admission of the governor and his cabinet to the legislature to explain and defend administration measures.
4. The right of the governor to dissolve the legislature and appeal to the voters in case of conflict between the two branches of the government, thus providing for official leadership instead of invisible government.
5. The creation of a measure of home rule for counties and cities calculated to reduce the amount of local, special, and "pork-barrel" legislation and to concentrate the attention of the state government on measures of a general character.

After the publication of its appraisal, the Bureau, in co-operation with Hon. John G. Saxe and other members of the convention, prepared several constitutional amendments providing for a state budget and for the re-organization and consolidation of state administration.

These measures and other related propositions submitted to the convention were the subject of several hearings by the appropriate committees. At these hearings ex-President Taft, Hon. John J. Fitzgerald, Dr. Frank J. Goodnow, Dr. A. Lawrence Lowell, Dr. F. A. Cleveland, and other gentlemen of authority in the field of government and finance appeared and defended the general principles advanced in the Bureau's program. These hearings, which may be said to mark an epoch in the history of state constitution making, were published by the Bureau (Numbers 62 and 63 of "Municipal Research," June, 1915, issue), and given a wide circulation.

The efforts of those who were working for administrative and fiscal reconstruction bore the first fruit on August 4, when the convention committee on finances, revenues, and expenditures reported to the convention an amendment providing for a modified state budget system. This measure provides that the governor shall prepare and submit to the legislature a state budget, accompanied by a comprehensive statement of public finances; that the legislature may reduce or strike out items but cannot increase the governor's proposals for state administrative purposes; that the governor, comptroller, and department heads shall have the right either independently or on call of the legislature to appear to defend or explain budgetary matters. This proposal was carried by the convention and embodied in the new constitution.

The only gaps in this measure which prevent it from providing a complete executive budget are the provisions that the legislature may increase items or add new items to the governor's proposals by special law subject to executive veto, and that the governor's budget shall extend only to appropriations for state administrative purposes—leaving local "pork-barrel" appropriations outside of the budget. These points were not overlooked at the time of the passage of the amendment but it was doubtless believed to be inexpedient to disturb too violently the time-honored methods for the distribution of public plunder.

In the report which accompanied the submission of the amendment, the committee of the convention said: "To meet the objection that the governor might misuse his power and either starve objects which the legislature deems worthy or trade with individuals or localities, the power of initiation of financial legislation is left with the legislature subject to but two restrictions: (1) it must not be exercised until after the budget is disposed of by both houses; and (2) such appropriations must be made by separate bills, each for a single work or object. We believe this will adequately protect the budget system and yet keep it free from executive abuse."[1]

The committee of the convention in charge of state administrative reorganization had a more rocky road to travel than the committee in charge of the budget program. Both political parties had endorsed the short ballot, but the short ballot, like municipal home rule, may cover many designs. Ballots may be short, shorter, or shortest. Moreover, the problem involves grave questions in administrative reconstruction. A ballot cannot be shortened with a pair of scissors. The process requires careful thought about the appointment of officers, their interrelations, and their functions. Here arise clashes in both theoretical and practical politics.

The Bureau of Municipal Research proposed the popular election of the comptroller and the attorney-general—the former on the theory that there should exist in every government an independent auditor and the latter as a concession to popular opinion. The stricter advocates of the short ballot declared in favor of only two elective officers—the governor and the lieutenant-governor. At the other extreme were some of the old "organization" men who actually proposed to lengthen the ballot by adding to the elective offices several more now appointive.

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[1] Appendix to "Municipal Research," No. 62, p. 443.

Never was the true inwardness of the opposition to the short ballot and the real farce of the "elective" system for minor administrative officers shown to better advantage than in the contest which ensued over the proposition of the convention committee to curtail materially the number of officers chosen by popular vote. When the committee suggested that the comptroller should be appointed, the organization leaders of both parties cried out that "free" institutions were in danger from executive usurpation and urged that an independent auditor was indispensable to safeguard the public interests. When the committee yielded to the opposition, and accepted the principle of election but took from the comptroller all but auditing functions, it discovered that the "champions of the people" did not care so much about popular election as about patronage. As is well known to all students of New York government, it has long been the practice of the legislature to place tax-collecting and other functions not strictly auditing in character in the comptroller's office in order to put at his disposal a number of fat plums for "the boys." It was not surprising, therefore, to see Comptroller Travis running about the state stirring up opposition to the short ballot which threatened to cut down his patronage. It was not surprising, either, to see him throw off all disguise and accept a curious compromise advanced by the committee providing for an elective comptroller with abundant patronage at his control and for a genuine auditor, without patronage, to be appointed by the governor. Thus American governments are fearfully and wonderfully made.

According to the terms of the compromise, therefore, the governor, lieutenant-governor, comptroller, and attorney-general are to be elected by popular vote. The other functions of state government are to be consolidated in fifteen departments, but no uniform system of appointment is provided. The commissioner of education is to be chosen, as before, by the regents of the state university who are selected by the legislature. Some of the state commissioners are to be appointed by the governor with the consent of the senate and the heads of other departments are to be chosen by the governor alone. Some commissioners are to be subject to removal by the governor upon notice and hearing, others at his discretion.

The other provisions of state-wide interest are the requirement of serial in place of sinking fund bonds, the increase of the salary of the governor to $20,000 and of the legislators from $1,500 to $2,500, permission for absentee registration for voters, publication of a daily record of legislative proceedings, and a revision of the judiciary article with a view to eliminating many of the law's delays.

III

The provisions of the new constitution which are of most interest to the readers of this journal are, of course, the clauses dealing with home rule for cities and counties. Here, too, as in other matters, the work of the convention was supplemented and in a measure guided by the activities of outside organizations. As was pointed out above, the City Club had for a long time devoted attention to the subject and its legislative committee had drafted several proposals looking in the direction of enlarged municipal autonomy, including the constitutional amendment introduced in the legislature previous to the calling of the convention. The Municipal Government Association had likwise contributed powerfully to the growth of the movement by independent action and by co-operation with other agencies. The Mayors' Conference had also taken the matter up and formulated its program for the consideration of the convention. A number of municipal officers, notably Mayor Mitchel of New York, took a personal interest in the advancement of the cause. The convention, therefore, had no lack of advice, and naturally enough there was not a little confusion of opinion as to the nature, limits, and implications of home rule.[2] All of this became painfully apparent as the work of the convention proceeded.

It is impossible to summarize here all of the measures providing for municipal autonomy, which have been prepared in New York during the last few months and introduced in the convention, or to follow all of the controversies which raged in the convention and outside during the summer. It is sufficient to say that on August 5, the committee on cities, of which Mr. Seth Low was chairman, reported to the convention a scheme for home rule that was adopted (with some modifications) on September 1.

Following the accepted division of the subject, the municipal home rule measure falls into two main parts: provision for local charter drafting and provision for enlarged local powers, including of course new limitations on the legislature.

With reference to the first matter, the amendment stipulates that at the general election of 1917, and every eighth year thereafter (unless the city charter on its first revision shall provide otherwise), every city shall submit to the electors, either at a general or special election, the question "shall there be a commission to revise the charter of the city?"

"In case," continues the amendment, "the question shall be answered in the affirmative," the city (except New York) shall choose seven commissioners to revise its charter; that is, presumably, if a majority of those voting on the measure approve revision, although this important matter is left indeterminate in the amendment. For New York City the number of commissioners is increased to sixteen, nine of whom shall be chosen at large, two by the voters in each of the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn, and one by the voters in each of the three remaining boroughs. Whether the commissioners in the other cities of the state are to be elected on a general or district ticket is left apparently to the discretion of the legislature, with the presumption probably in favor of the former.

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[2] See Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science (New York), vol. v, number 2, January, 1915.

The charter drafted by the commission on revision must be submitted to the voters at the next ensuing general election, or at a special election to be called for that purpose. If a majority of the voters voting thereon approve the revised charter, it must be submitted to the legislature during the first week of its session in January of the year following popular ratification. If the revised charter is not disapproved by a joint resolution of the legislature prior to July first of that year, it shall go into effect. The further elaboration of the charter-drafting process is left to the legislature.

With reference to the second broad division of the amendment, namely, the enlargement of local autonomy, it is provided that "every city shall have exclusive power to manage, regulate, and control its property, affairs and municipal government, subject to the provisions of this constitution and subject further to the provisions of the general laws of the state, of laws applying to all the cities of the state without classification or distinction, and of laws applying to a county not wholly included within a city establishing or affecting the relation between such a county and a city therein." After this generality, which will prove especially inviting to the exercise of judicial wit, the amendment proceeds to enumerate among others the powers thus actually granted to the municipality. These include the powers:

1. To organize and manage all departments, bureaus and other divisions of its municipal government.
2. To regulate the powers, duties, qualifications, mode of selection, number, terms of office, compensation, and method of removal of all city officers and employes.
3. To regulate the compensation of all officers not chosen by the voters.
4. To revise or enact amendments to its charter in relation to its property, affairs, or municipal government, and to enact amendments to any local or special law in relation thereto—in accordance with the provisions of the amendment.

In addition to conferring charter-making power upon a special commission, the measure also provides that the legislative body of the city may enact charter amendments subject to the approval of the mayor and of the board of estimate and apportionment (if such there be), with the proviso that any such amendment which changes the "framework" of the government of the city, or modifies restrictions as to issuing bonds or contracting debts, shall be submitted to the legislature for rejection if it so desires.

While thus enlarging the powers of the city, the amendment further provides that the legislature may delegate to municipalities for exercise within their respective local jurisdictions such of its legislative powers in matters of state concern as it may from time to time deem expedient.

After providing for local charter drafting and presumably for the enlargement of local autonomy, the amendment further safeguards cities by placing restrictions upon the legislature. It flatly forbids the legislature to pass any law relating to the property, affairs, or local government of any city, excepting such as is applicable to all the cities of the state, without distinction or classification. It then reincorporates the old provision dividing the cities of the state into three classes for action on special legislation and narrowly defines a "special" city law as a "law affecting cities in relation to boundaries, water supply, sewerage and public improvements, involving the use of territory outside of the boundaries of cities, and in relation to the government of cities in matters of state concern and applying to less than all of the cities of the state without classification or distinction." Any special city law, in accordance with the provisions of the old constitution, which is continued in the new, must be transmitted to the cities affected and be approved in cities of the first class by the mayor and in other cities by the mayor and municipal legislature before going into effect.

A very vigorous minority report criticising the amendment as proposed by the committee on cities was submitted to the convention on August 5 by Mr. Foley and Mr. Franchot. The dissenters call attention to the fact that under the system proposed it will take approximately three years between the submission of the question of charter revision and the final enactment of the charter into law. They hold that the requirement of approval by the legislature makes possible the destruction of charter reform and they urge that approval by the voters of the city should be final. They claim that the plan is therefore both wasteful and impracticable and will lead to endless confusion of authorities and jurisdictions. They further contend that the grant of power is so uncertain that it may be readily reduced to a few minor matters by judicial interpretation; they say that the language of the grant "will breed hopeless doubt, uncertainty and confusion," and they emphatically declare that the measure "does not confer genuine home rule, does not eliminate mandatory legislation affecting cities, narrows instead of widens the present sphere of local control by municipalities." [3]

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[3] In addition to the provisions for home rule, the city of New York receives at the hands of the convention a reorganization and consolidation of the local courts of mediate

The agitation carried on by the Short Ballot Association, the City Club and other associations in favor of larger autonomy for counties also bore fruit in an amendment providing that the legislature may by general laws establish different forms of government for counties not wholly included in a city—with the proviso that any such form of government shall become effective in any county only when approved by the electors thereof in such manner as the legislature may prescribe. While thus opening the way for experimentation in county government and giving the counties of the state a certain degree of choice in determining their form of government, the amendment further provides that no special or local law relating to a county or counties shall be enacted except upon request, by resolution, of the governing body of the county or counties to be affected.

It would be a work of supererogation to discuss the merits of this constitution. Its provisions speak for themselves. The advocates of the short ballot and administrative re-organization have received a large measure of consolation—more in fact than they had reason to expect. The champions of scientific budget-making have achieved a substantial gain in the governor's initiation of the administrative budget—whether it becomes a matter of form will depend upon the character of the new governors. In breaking down the rigid separation of the governor and his cabinet from the legislature and admitting them to the floor of the houses, a system of interpellation may be established which will contribute powerfully to efficient and responsible government and will open up undreamt-of possibilities in politics. In prophecies unfulfilled the convention rendered notable services. There is plenty to be said in criticism, but another time would be more appropriate, although one cannot forbear mentioning the continuation of the notorious gerrymander against New York City. The issue is now with the voters.

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jurisdiction. There will be two divisions of such courts: the city court with city-wide jurisdiction over civil matters and the court of general sessions with criminal jurisdiction in New York City and county. The county courts of the four other counties will be abolished and their jurisdiction divided between the two new courts. This provision will materially simplify the judicial system of the metropolis and at the same time allow for the specialization in courts which is in harmony with the best opinion as to the proper development of municipal tribunals.

MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS IN NASHVILLE, 1915

BY ST. GEORGE L. SIOUSSAT
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THE present commission form of government in the city of Nashville is not quite two years old. The charter (chapter 22 of the acts of 1913) became law without the approval of Hon. B. W. Hooper, who was at that time governor. He was understood to feel that the franchises of the city were so insufficiently guarded that he was justified in withholding his approval, but he did not veto the bill. Of hostile criticism of the charter, which had been drawn under the auspices of the board of trade and had been submitted to able attorneys, there was very little open expression. It was pointed out in opposition, however, that under the old charter the mayor, Hilary E. Howse, having served the full permitted terms, was not re-eligible, while the new charter specifically made it possible for him to stand again. The charter provided for five commissioners, as follows: (1) of police, public affairs, and health (who also serves as mayor); (2) of finance, lights, and market house; (3) of streets, sewers, and sidewalks; (4) of fire, sprinkling, and building inspection; and (5) of water-works, street-cleaning, and work-house. It will be observed at once that there was a considerable specification of duties to be performed by particular commissioners, with a lessening, perhaps, of the responsibility of the commission as a whole. Each commissioner was to serve a term of four years, but special provision was made for certain members of the board of public works under the former charter, who were continued to 1915 and 1917, respectively. In 1913, Mr. Howse was elected mayor and two other commissioners were chosen, one of these for four years and one for two. In October, 1915, comes in due course the election of two commissioners, who will serve for four years. These provisions of the charter will make it sufficiently clear that there has been considerable identity of personnel between the present administration and that which existed under the old charter.

In the charter of 1913 was included a provision for the recall of the mayor or of any commissioner upon petition of qualified voters to a number equal to at least 25 per cent "of the entire vote for all candidates for the office of mayor cast at the last preceding city election." To this provision it will be necessary to recur later. It was also enacted "that upon any vacancy occurring in the board of commissioners by death, resignation, or otherwise, except in the case of a commissioner who is recalled by the voters, as hereinafter provided, the remaining four commissioners shall have the power by a majority vote to elect a commissioner to fill such vacancy who shall hold office for the unexpired term."

Early in the present year, as a part of the movement for the enforcement of the laws establishing state-wide prohibition, there was passed by the assembly what is known as the "ouster law," by which ten freeholders may institute suit for the removal of a delinquent public official. This act was signed by Governor Rye, notwithstanding his objection to the "ten free-holders" clause. How this act, intended for use against city officials who had failed in their duty as to enforcing the prohibition laws, has been called into service in the present situation in Nashville will appear more fully on page 649.

Somewhat over a year ago it became known that the city's finances were not in the best condition, that there was a considerable deficit, and that there would be need for a large bond issue to cover this. The origin of this deficit was, in large part, as follows. In 1899 the former charter of 1883 was amended, and among other changes a stringent provision was added that the budget of a given year should not exceed the aggregate revenue (exclusive of the sale of bonds) for the preceding year. In 1907, however, the city administration procured the passage of an act authorizing the city to appropriate in excess of the income of the preceding year as much as $75,000. When this had been done once, the temptation to repeat it was not resisted, and similar acts were obtained authorizing an excess in 1909 of $250,000; in 1911 of $200,000 for that year and the same for 1912; and in 1913 the same sum for that year and for 1914. By 1915, therefore, the accumulation of these permitted excesses was more than $1,000,000, and the necessity of funding was pressing.

The city commission enlisted the advice of a committee of business men. It was suggested that the city's finances should undergo an expert audit by some outside accountant, and that there should be coupled with this an efficiency survey similar to those adopted by certain other cities. This suggestion, at first agreed to, was later declined by a majority of the commission, and it was alleged that, after securing the promise of the citizen's committee to use its influence to obtain from the assembly then in session permission to issue $978,000 in bonds, the commission, after the bonds had been granted and sold, withdrew its consent to the audit. The commission maintained that a special act was necessary to give it power to appropriate money for the purpose of the audit. Such an act was passed later. In addition to these bonds was an issue of $450,000 for street improvements and $625,000 for school purposes. In both of these cases it was charged that the authorization of these issues without popular vote constituted a violation of the intention of the charter which specifically required such a vote.

Over the question of audit there arose a considerable dispute between the commission and the Commercial club, a body representative of the most important business interests of the city, which offered to provide for the expense of an audit and efficiency survey. The commission proposed to advertise for bids for an accounting in accordance with its own plans, but when the club published the correspondence over this matter, the commission, obviously feeling that public sentiment was against it, severing relations with the citizens' committee and the club, invited a committee composed of the six national bank presidents of Nashville to undertake the arrangements for an audit. One of the newspapers of the city, understood to be friendly to the administration, announced that the service of this committee was to be "for this train and trip only." The bankers' committee arranged for the audit, and in May the commission opened and referred to this committee 29 bids which had been received. June 4, the firm of James Cameron of New York was recommended by the bankers' committee, and, notwithstanding some objection on the part of the state board of accountants, the contract with this firm was adopted by the board of commissioners.

On the morning of June 12, it was announced by the mayor that important books were missing from the revenue office. The commission met and offered a reward for the arrest and conviction of the person guilty of abstracting the books, and the mayor suspended the city comptroller pending the investigation. This official, R. Miles Burns, in whose custody the books were, was a subordinate of Lyle Andrews, commissioner of finance, lights and market house. Burns secured counsel and thus was brought into the case Harry S. Stokes of the Nashville bar, who, with his associates, Messrs. W. C. Cherry and J. G. Stephenson, has figured most prominently in the subsequent proceedings. The first step was to contest the right of the commission to suspend Burns without an investigation, and a temporary injunction was secured. On the other side it was alleged that Burns knew, as early as April, that the books were missing. In his request for an injunction, Burns filed a supplemental bill involving in financial irregularities the commissioner of finance, Andrews. On June 18, both Andrews and Burns were arrested on the warrant of the mayor and a warrant was issued for one "Doc" West, assistant treasurer, who, however, disappeared for over two months and has only recently returned to stand trial.

On June 25, the city treasurer, Myers, was arrested on the charge of breach of trust. The grand jury found true bills against Andrews, Burns, and West. On June 28, the commissioners took the radical step of removing one of their own number, Andrews, commissioner of finance, lights, and market house. No specific grant of this power appears in the charter, but it was argued by the counsel for the city to exist inherently in that instrument. The four remaining commissioners then proceeded under the charter to elect to the vacant office, Park Marshall, a prominent Nashville attorney. On July 19, Burns, the comptroller, resigned his office.

We have thus far related the original development of the municipal case. But soon the matter was rendered much more complex. On June 25, Mr. Stokes, counsel for Burns, filed a bill asking for a partial receivership for the city of Nashville. This bill was several times amended, the most important addition for our purposes resulting from the co-operation with Burns of a number of taxpayers seeking to place the city in the hands of a receiver. The grounds upon which this petition, which came before the chancery court, was based consisted in allegations of illegal conduct of the financial affairs of the city, especially in the illegal or void contracts with paving companies which were made parties to the suit. After a lengthy argument upon a motion to dismiss the bill, the chancellor took cognizance of the case and later appointed a special commissioner to take proof. Somewhat later the chancellor appointed a receiver. He also refused a transfer of the cases of the paving companies to the federal court. His action as to the receivership, however, was nullified on July 28 by Judge Wilson of the court of civil appeals, who issued a supersedeas.

Meanwhile, on July 20, proceedings under the ouster law made their appearance. A bill was filed by certain citizens under this act seeking to remove Mayor Howse and three other commissioners, one of whom was Commissioner Andrews, already dismissed by the commission itself. The same day one of these commissioners, J. M. Wilkerson, of the department of streets, sewers, and sidewalks, resigned, and the commission elected as his successor G. W. Stainback, formerly a member of the board of public works under the old charter. On July 27, Judge Matthews of the circuit court granted the ouster petition to the extent of a temporary suspension, pending final hearing, and removed from office the mayor and Commissioners Elliot, of the department of water-works, etc., and Andrews, commissioner of finance, etc., and City Treasurer Charles Myers. This left as members of the commission, Alexander, Marshall, and Stainback, of whom only Alexander, of the department of fire, etc., was one of the original commissioners. The commission then attempted to elect two new members to fill the vacant seats; but this effort was met by an injunction from the circuit court against the participation of Commissioner Alexander in such an action. One of the judges of the court of civil appeals, however, issued a supersedeas and set aside the injunction on the grounds of insufficient notice, thus permitting Commissioner Alexander to continue in office. This was on July 30. Strenuous efforts were then made by the Commercial club and other business organizations to have the commission proceed with the election of a mayor and another commissioner, but these efforts were marked by a great lack of harmony. The recommendations made by the club and the bodies acting with it were opposed by another organization, the Business men's association, and a distinct political aspect was given to this phase of the matter. A mass-meeting held to further the choice of the club's nominees afforded opportunity for the appearance of U. S. Senator Luke Lea, who upheld the nominees of the Business men's association, and for Harry S. Stokes, counsel for Burns and the taxpayers, who, pleading the necessity of the receivership, urged that no election be made at the time. A second mass-meeting in the interest of the receivership was largely attended, and the proposition of Mr. Stokes awoke great popular enthusiasm, but met with almost unanimous opposition from the business interests of the city.

Meanwhile, the commission proceeded with the effort to fill the vacancies, and on the 579th ballot Hon. Robert Ewing, a nominee of the Commercial club, was elected mayor, and Hon. J. O. Tankard, a member of the last assembly and a nominee of the Business men's association, was elected commissioner of water-works, etc. Somewhat later, after the supreme court decisions, which will be discussed below, ouster proceedings were taken up against Alexander, but the commissioner submitted his resignation. The vacancy thus far has not been filled, and it is understood will not be filled until the regular election in the autumn.

With matter thus approaching a situation fraught with great danger, the supreme court of Tennessee came to the rescue, and on August 6, after hearing arguments, handed down three decisions. First, the supersedeas of the ouster proceedings against Alexander was declared to be beyond the power of the court of civil appeals under the ouster statute and the statute creating the court of civil appeals. The supreme court, asserting direct appellate jurisdiction, decided that the ouster proceedings against Alexander were, however, insufficient, and the injunction against him was dissolved. Second, in regard to the ouster of Mayor Howse and Commissioner Elliot the proceedings were held to have been sufficient for a suspension. Third, the application of the attorneys arguing for the receivership to have this matter taken up directly by the supreme court on certiorari, under the statutes, was denied, and the case was left with the court of civil appeals This was equivalent, temporarily at least, to a denial of a receivership.

Parallel with much of what has been narrated has been another movement under the sections of the charter providing for the use of the "recall." A recall petition was framed under the advice and on the initiative of a group of younger men in the city, especially Laurent Brown, an attorney, and was submitted to the commissioners of election of Davidson county, who found the petition to be in regular form. The term of two of the commissioners of election having expired, however, the new appointees, constituting the majority, adopted a policy unfavorable to the recall petition. When confronted with mandamus proceedings, the commissioners argued the uncertainty of the status of the recall petition. Some of the officials named therein had resigned and others had been elected by the commission itself. Did the recall apply only to those originally named, or did the resignations of some of those named in the petition invalidate that instrument in regard to all? Are the new commissioners subject to recall under the old petition? These questions are still in litigation. A phenomenon of some interest to students of government, however, is the general attitude of unfriendliness towards the recall idea. It was alleged in the newspapers that the members of the committee of public safety of the Commercial club had pledged themselves not to support the recall movement, and the resignation of one member who refused such a pledge was accepted. Possibly one explanation of this attitude was a fear that popular election at the present time would lead to the choice of members not as capable as those who would be chosen by the commission itself on the recommendation of the business organizations.

The work of auditing, meanwhile, has been going on, but it is understood will not be completed for several weeks, perhaps months. The testimony brought out in the Burns case, however, has given evidence of much grafting in the city administration and of a totally insufficient system of accounting, especially in regard to deposits in the national banks. Witnesses have testified to the violation of the provisions of the charter which prohibit city officials or their relatives from profiting from contracts, to great waste in paving contracts, to the "loading" of the electric light plant, and to the use of the trust funds of the city for current expenses. The investigation, supported by a committee of taxpayers, is still under way, and the effort is being made to recover from the accused officials some of the money alleged to have been corruptly expended. Thus far no losses have been discovered sufficient seriously to affect the city's credit, but a regime of rigid retrenchment has been initiated. The legal phases of the case are still very complicated. The status of the suspended commissioners, the criminal proceedings against Burns, Andrews, Myers, and West; the legality of the actions of the present commissioners—all these remain to be decided. The political interest is continued by the approaching election of two commissioners and by the litigation with regard to the recall. Certainly public sentiment has been stirred to its depths, and, whatever the darker features of the case may prove to be, there is room to hope for an improvement in public morals for the immediate future.

One particularly unfortunate result of the whole affair is the tendency which it has had to cast opprobrium upon the commission form of government, which by an easy but fallacious logic is held accountable by many for the evils which have developed during the last few years. To this it may be replied that the very quickness with which the municipal corruption has been brought to light through the activity of Messrs. Stokes, Cherry, and Stephenson shows that the concentration of power in the hands of a commission has made it easy to fix the responsibility. It need hardly be added that the ouster law is not now popular with certain politicians in Tennessee.

NOTES AND EVENTS

I. GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

Charter Revisions.[1]—The proposed Oakland charter drafted by the tax association of Alameda county is most interesting. The association has long been interested in the city manager plan, having gone so far as two years ago to suggest the adaptation of the idea to the county of Alameda. Commission government in Oakland under the present charter has not been all that its advocates hoped for. In fact, it has exhibited some of the very faults which the theoretical students of municipal charters have frequently pointed out. Particularly, the commission plan has not secured, by the process of popular election, men specially equipped to perform administrative functions. Then, too, the commission, because of the mingling of legislative and departmental interests in that body, has been largely an assembly for the emphasizing of differences, rather than for cultivating the interests of the city.

The proposed plan calls for a council of six members and a mayor, all unsalaried, to be a legislative body. The mayor would exercise no functions different from other members of the council except to appoint the members of a number of advisory boards and to act as a presiding officer and the ceremonial head of the city. The city manager, under the direction of the council, would do the rest. The qualifications set down for this officer and the procedure to be followed in his selection are unique. The provision of the proposed charter on this point are as follows:

> The city manager must be a person of known administrative ability, with experience in responsible and important executive capacity; he shall be a person who has occupied positions of responsibility in directing large operations such as would indicate his ability to successfully discharge the duties attached to the office of city manager. He need not be a citizen of Oakland, or of California at the time of his appointment. Before such appointment is made, notice shall be inserted by advertising in at least two technical journals of national circulation and in ten newspapers of which four shall be published east of the Mississippi river; such notice shall be published once a week for four consecutive weeks and no appointment shall be made until thirty days from and after the date of the last publication.

One feature in the charter of very doubtful wisdom is that which requires the manager to prepare the budget, but makes it impossible for the council to raise any amounts therein, except by unanimous vote. This provision was evidently inserted with the thought that the manager would be analagous to an elected mayor. Such, however, is not the theory of the city manager plan, in which ultimate responsibility rests entirely with the council. The budget is the program of the city for a given year, and while it is probable that the provision of the proposed charter would not prove a serious obstacle in most cases, it is not unlikely that occasions might arise when the council would care to overrule the city manager by a majority vote on a question of public policy involving the increase of a budget item.

The charter stiffens up the civil service provisions and evidently puts in the competitive class all city officers and employes except the city manager, the secretary and the city attorney and his assistants. The appointing officer must appoint the person whose name stands highest on the eligible list.

The franchise provisions may be

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[1] From H. S. Gilbertson.

summed up as follows: (a) indeterminate franchises, (b) surrender of existing franchises and their replacement by indeterminate franchises, (c) proper valuation of the transportation lines in the event that the city desires to acquire them.

Home Rule in Florida. A considerable measure of home rule has been granted to the municipalities of Florida by an act passed at the last session of the legislature. It was fathered by Senator Ion L. Farris and known popularly as the "municipal freedom bill." This act does not make it possible for any city or town to enlarge its corporate powers beyond the limitations prescribed by law, but each city is given practically complete powers over the organization of the city government, including the power to alter the numbers, powers, duties, compensation, terms of office and the time and manner of election or appointment of any or all officers and boards, whether created by or recognized in state legislation or ordinances. The charter may also abolish any such officers or boards.

For the purpose of securing charter revision, the act authorizes the governing body of the city or town by resolution to provide for the election of a charter commission, varying according to the size of the city or town, from five to fifteen members. In case the council fails to act, the voters themselves may proceed to file a petition consisting of not less than twenty per cent of the qualified voters upon the verification of which petition the council must call the necessary election.

The charter proposed by this elected board must be submitted to the voters of the city or town at a general or special election.

Ohio's Optional Law Adopted. Westerville is apparently the first city in Ohio to take advantage of the optional city government law passed two years ago. The city manager plan was selected on July 31. A curious situation has arisen in that city by this action in that it is left without a court. When the bill was originally introduced provisions were made for municipal courts, but at the instance of one of the representatives from Cincinnati these were stricken out. The mayor of the city will apparently have to take his chances by sitting as judge and carrying out the provisions of the general code.

New City Charters. Commission government has recently been adopted in Springfield, Mo., San Jose, Cal., and Elizabeth City, N. C. Springfield voted to operate under the general law, the proposition having been carried by the slim majority of five. The other two cities will have the city manager plan under special charters.

The Massachusetts Optional Charter Bill recommended by the Doyle committee was approved by the governor on May 29, 1915. It gives cities the choice of four plans: (a) mayor and a city council of nine members elected at large; (b) mayor and a city council elected by wards; (c) mayor and four commissioners; (d) city manager and four councilors.

The charter commission of *Virginia, Minn.*, has been working for several months. It is composed of independent, public-spirited men representing all viewpoints of modern municipal progressive ideas. Virginia is the fifth largest city in Minnesota, with a population of over 15,000, and is the metropolis of the great Mesaba iron ore district in which the U. S. Steel Corporation and many large independent mining companies operate, but the politics of which they do not seek to dominate.

The commission has been considering the Duluth charter plan, the city manager plan, and a new plan that embodies a combination of the two. The Duluth charter was drawn as a municipal "constitution," with the idea that a body of ordinances, similar to state statutes, should supplement it, thus making amendments as to detail of administration easy of adoption. A sub-committee of the Virginia commission has announced that it has practically decided on a commission of five men, only three of whom shall receive more than nominal salaries, and those three shall perform the administrative functions of municipal government. The other two shall participate in all legislative functions, the idea being that they will constitute a check on the expenditure of public funds, which the enthusiasm of the administrative members to "make a showing" in their several departments naturally induces. This is supposed to be a new departure, the purpose being to keep the legislative membership of the commission large enough to be representative, and the administrative salaried membership small enough to secure efficiency and economy in the business management of the city.

The charter will abolish the ward system, will embody the initiative, referendum and recall in workable form, and will probably provide for the preferential system of voting which has been so successful in Duluth. A municipal monthly bulletin may also be provided for, so the city officials may explain their purposes and defend their official actions to the people, with a fullness that newspapers usually do not have space to publish, and in self-defense if the local press should sometime determine to "get" the commission. The Virginia charter commission believes that the size of the city to be governed should be the primary factor to consider in determining which of the modern theories or forms of commission charters should be adopted.

Virginia owns, and has operated very successfully, its own water, gas and electric light plant.

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Municipal Home Rule.[1]—The *Connecticut* legislature passed a bill providing that any town whose government is conducted under the provisions of a special act, and any borough or city, shall have authority to enact a charter for its government or to amend its present charter under the conditions prescribed in the act. The bill was advocated by the Connecticut chamber of commerce.

A proposed home rule amendment to the *New Jersey* constitution failed of passage. Several bills designed to give local *Pennsylvania* communities larger control over public utilities, in the shape of amendments to the public utility law of 1913 were defeated. Wilmington, *Delaware*, has obtained from the legislature home rule in the matter of issuing bonds for improvements purposes. Without consulting that body, it may issue bonds up to ten per cent of the total of the city assessment.

Ohio.[2] Two important cases involving the provisions of Cleveland's home rule charter have been decided by the Ohio supreme court, one in June and one in July. The first had to do with the power of the city to determine the organization of its sinking fund commissions. The home rule amendment, after providing that municipalities should have authority to exercise all powers of local self-government, also provided that "The general assembly shall have authority to limit the power of municipalities to levy taxes and incur debts for local purposes." The assumption of those who framed the constitutional amendment was, and the contention before the supreme court has been, that the power granted to cities to exercise all powers of local self-government would have conferred upon them the power to control their taxation and indebtedness, except for the specific reservation of these powers to the general assembly.

It was assumed that this reservation of power to the legislature should be strictly construed since it was by way of restriction on the general grant of power to cities. In other words, that Cleveland having adopted a charter was free to organize its machinery for the management of its public debt, and was restricted only in that it must keep within the limitations upon taxation and indebtedness provided by general law.

The general municipal code of Ohio provides a sinking fund commission of four, appointed by the mayor. The Cleveland charter, section 121, provides "The sinking fund commission shall consist of the mayor, the director of finance, and the president of the council." This was the provision attacked. The supreme court upheld the contention of the city, thus committing the court a second time to a broad and liberal interpretation of the home rule amendment.

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[1] Prepared by Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

[2] From Prof. Augustus Raymond Hatton.

The second case had to do with the matter of frontage consents in the construction or extension of street railways. The Ohio law provides that, before a street railway may be constructed or extended along any street, the consent of the owners of a majority of the foot frontage of property thereon shall be secured.

Since the home rule amendment grants to municipalities all powers of local self-government, and also "authority to acquire, construct, own, lease, and operate any public utility . . . and to contract with others for any . . . producuct or service of such utility," the question was raised whether the city in framing its charter can abrogate the state law requiring frontage consents.

This question has been raised through the desire of the city to extend the street railway along that portion of Euclid avenue which lies between East 22d street and East 40th street, commonly known as "millionaires' row."

In framing the Cleveland charter it was provided in Section 187 that "No consent of the owners of property abutting on any highway or public ground shall be required for the construction, extension, maintenance, or operation of any public utility by original grant or renewal, unless such public utility is of such a character that its contraction or operation is an additional burden upon the rights of the property owners in such highways or public grounds." The contention of the city is that the grant of powers of local self-government together with the specific power to own and operate public utilities and contract with others for products or services of such utilities, gives the city complete control of its streets except as to the extent that the placing of any public utility fixtures in a street may place an additional burden upon the rights of the property owners therein. The supreme court affirmed the home rule charter and Cleveland's right to proceed thereunder.

Illinois. The 1915 session adjourned without passing any home rule bill, although several were up for consideration. One provided for council control and represented the wishes of the Chicago council and the original proponents of the measure; the other provided for a city commission to be appointed by the mayor of the city of Chicago and represented partly the wishes of the new administration and partly the efforts of the utilities companies to cloud the situation.

The *Iowa* senate defeated, by one vote, the Arney bill for home rule for cities and towns. The bill was one which was intended to give to cities and towns greater freedom in the handling of their business affairs and had the endorsement of the league of Iowa municipalities. The house refused to go to the length of permitting municipalities to license garages and livery stables. (*See A. Y. B., 1914, p. 211.*) This bill was promoted by the league of Iowa municipalities.

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Illinois City Elections Law.[1]—The city elections law is a special act of the legislature passed for the benefit of the larger cities of the state. It is effective only on a majority vote of the people of a municipality. Once adopted, it is effective as pertains to all elections, and there is no provision for the city ever getting rid of it. Its object is a prevention of fraud at an election and a protection of the sanctity of the ballot. In this its practical workings seem to be successful. The law is administered by three commissioners named by the county court, and their word is final in all election matters except on appeal to the county judge, the court of last resort, and except in certain contests. In Peoria the commissioners are two republicans and one democrat. They name the judges and clerks, select the polling places, prepare the ballots, in fact all the details. Returns are made to them. They canvas and certify the result to the county court, who issues the certificates of election to county and municipal positions.

The board has the right to summon anyone to act as judge or clerk and he must serve unless excused—the same as a juror. Judges and clerks are examined as to their qualifications and competency, instead of being certified by ward heelers. Under the new law there has been a marked improvement in the personnel of judges and clerks with a corresponding increase in the rapidity with which returns are received. The character of the polling places, too, has improved immensely. Saloons are now closed during the hours of election, and there is no disorder of any character. The election commissioners have charge of the registration of the voters, and no elector can vote unless registered. Several days before election, lists are printed for each precinct giving the name of every voter by streets and numbers. Enough copies must be printed to provide every voter with one if he wishes. In this way the lists are carefully scrutinized and the name of any persons illegally registered can be removed. Under this act the burden of proof is all placed on the voter if his right to register or vote is questioned. It is the only place where a man is presumed to be guilty until he proves his innocence. Voters denied registration can appeal to the county judge.

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[1] From Henry M. Pindell, Peoria, Ill.

The only objection to the law is that of expense, for it costs more to conduct an election under its provisions than by the old system. However, an election held under the city election law is far more satisfying to the people, who have the utmost confidence in it. Aside from some expenses of the commission considered needless, the law has given general satisfaction in its practical workings, and none of the results in the two elections held under it have been questioned by any one.

The county pays the salaries of the commissioners and chief clerk and assistant, together with all expenses of purely county elections. The city pays the judges and clerks at municipal elections. The city must also furnish the commission with an office, which must be kept open at all times. It must also pay all the office expenses.

There are three judges and two clerks for each precinct at five dollars per day. The day following the registration, the clerks must visit the home of every voter registered and see if he really lives there. If he cannot be found, a suspect notice is left and he must appear before the registry board and show his right to register.

A number of Peorians who had been voting for years, were unable to vote at the last city election owing to the fact they had never been naturalized. One of them was a man holding office as a park commissioner. His office automatically became vacant and he applied for his naturalization papers immediately, after having voted here for thirty-five years.

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Proportional Representation.[1]—On August 10, the voters of Ashtabula, Ohio, adopted an amendment to their new city manager plan charter providing proportional representation for the election of the council of seven, This is the first instance of the adoption, for the election of any public body in the United States or Canada, of what deserves to be called proportional representation.

The system of election covered by the amendment is the Hare, applied as follows: Candidates are nominated by petition; their names are printed on the ballots in a single list, without party names or emblems. The voter indicates his first choice by the figure 1, his second by the figure 2, etc., expressing thus as many or as few choices as he pleases. The count of first choices is made up at the precincts. The ballots are sent to the electoral authorities of the city, under whose direction, in the presence of representatives of the candidates, newspaper men, and others, the count is finished. The principle at the bottom of the rules of counting is that the voters are to be divided, in accordance with their will as set forth on their ballots, into seven groups, each comprising a seventh of the voters—as nearly as possible—and each unanimous in the desire to send into the council a particular candidate. In other words the system provides, in place of the seven territorial constituencies which would elect the councilmen under the ward system, seven unanimous constituencies.

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[1] From Clarence G. Hoag.

This system of proportional representation has been in successful operation for parliamentary elections in Tasmania since 1907, for the election of the South African senate and for municipal elections in the Transvaal since 1909; and it is prescribed by the home rule act for the senate and part of the house of Ireland. A system quite the same essentially, though usually called by a different name, has been used for the election of the Danish senate since 1857, and has been extended this year, in connection with the adoption of the new constitution, to the election of the electors who choose the senators.

Under such a system the majority of the voters of the city will secure a majority of the seats in the council, and yet each considerable minority group will have in the council a representative to voice its views and protect its interests. Having all opinions and interests thus represented in the deliberative body in accordance with their voting strength is considered by proportionalists an essential feature of a system of government that deserves to be called representative. This view is vigorously sustained by a foreign authority now sojourning amongst us, Monsieur L. Dupriez, professor of comparative constitutional law in the University of Louvain. It will be recalled that the proportional system is used in Belgium for parliamentary and certain other elections. In reference to American city government, Professor Dupriez writes:

> As I said in my letter of last March to Mr. Foulke, the first and indispensable condition of the good organization of the government of a city is "to insure before all things a constant and internal control in municipal commissions by bringing into them men of diverse origin and tendencies." I believe that a commission or municipal council elected exclusively on the principle of plurality or majority cannot constitute a good city government. Such a commission or council will understand, protect, and favor only the interests, desires, and points of view of the group that elected it. It will neglect or even, perhaps, oppose the interests, desires, and aspirations of the beaten minorities. Besides, in such an assembly of associated friends the absence of all control will permit every abuse to develop. These dangers and disadvantages will be found not only if the municipal elections are carried out and dominated by the national parties, but also if they are fought out between groups constituted on lines purely municipal.
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> But if municipal commissions and councils are composed of men nominated by diverse groups, which represent diverse ideas and points of view and which defend interests that are different or even opposed, each of the members will exercise an effective and vigilant control over the others. In the discussions of the council or commission the needs and aspirations of all the groups of citizens will be set forth and sustained, and thus a compromise among the interests and desires will often be worked out. The city will be administered no longer for the exclusive benefit of a single group, but for the good of all the inhabitants.

The leader of the proportionalist forces in Ashtabula was W. E. Boynton, vice-president of the recent charter commission and formerly president of the city council. A passage from the letter of Lent D. Upson, who until recently was director of the Dayton Bureau of municipal research, will be of interest:

> I am only sorry that my own city of Dayton should not have been chosen to make the experiment. At the time our charter was passed, I think all of us were convinced that the representation of interests should be included, but we believed that the presentation of two issues might lose them both. The experience of a year and a half has now demonstrated the need of a more satisfactory method of connecting public opinion with the government itself. Our administration is honest, highly efficient, and has exceeded my most enthusiastic expectation so far as results are concerned. I feel, however, that its work would be strengthened if every element had a voice in the policy-making body, and were compelled to go on record regarding the very matters which they are now criticizing.

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Publicity of Primary Results.—Under a 1915 act, at all primary elections in

Pennsylvania, in each election district, the vote as soon as counted must be publicly and fully declared from the window to the citizens present; and a brief statement, showing the votes received by each candidate, shall be made and signed by the election officers as soon as the vote is counted, and must be immediately posted up on the door of the election house or polling place, for the information of the public.

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Woman's Suffrage in Ontario, Canada.—Unusual interest was given recent municipal elections by the submission of the question of the extension of the municipal franchise to married women with proper qualifications. The suffrage organizations, following the success attending the submission of a similar plebiscite in Toronto, determined to strengthen their campaign by obtaining a show of opinion wherever Councils could be induced to take up the matter. In every city where the people voted upon the question, the plebiscite was carried. The following results were recorded:

	Majority
Strathroy	259
Guelph	302
Thamesville	Large
Orangeville	Large
Clinton	115
Bracebridge	Large
North Bay	Large

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Public Utility Notes.[1]—*The Utilities Magazine*, the first issue of which has recently come from the press, is to be published by the Utilities Bureau, which was organized at a meeting of American mayors held in Philadelphia, November, 1914, "as a nation-wide inter-city agency for bringing the combined ability and experience of all our cities to the service of each city which may face a public utility problem."[2]

The leading article is by Harold Evans of the Philadelphia bar and deals interestingly with the vital subject of the right of a plaintiff to examine the books and properties of a utility company. Citations are made, giving the circumstances under which this right falls to the plaintiff or defendant in a utilities suit. An interesting table, comparing the cost of gas, manufactured and delivered, exclusive of taxes and all capital charges, in 19 American cities reveals that the cost averages less than 50 cents, ranging from .3184 cents in Milwaukee to .6215 cents in Westchester and certain suburbs near New York City. The director of the bureau, Morris Llewellyn Cooke, discusses the recent decision in the case of *Stadtlander et al. vs. the New York Edison Company* as handed down by the Public service commission of the first district, and an article by Clyde L. King gives a complete digest of the ordinances regulating jitney buses adopted in American cities. Notice is given of a conference on valuation methods and principles, to be held under the auspices of the bureau, November 10 to 13, 1915.

Standardized Street Railway Ordinances. Street railway ordinances are "just as much working tools of the street railway as the equipment. It is just as essential to know their capacities and limitations as it is to know the capacities and limitations of a piece of track or of a type of equipment." These needs can be attained, says Herbert H. Evans, the secretary of the local transportation committee of the Chicago city council, in *Aera*, through standardizing street railway ordinances. "It is possible to standardize ordinances almost to the same degree that it has been possible to standardize equipment, and with the same happy result." When it comes to giving definite illustrations of what he means by standardization, however, the author is not at all lucid, his most valuable suggestion being that phraseology, once used and standardized, should be repeated in subsequent ordinances or amendments so that the whole would appear in practically identical language so far as the public interests were concerned. "Many acrimonious controversies arise between the public authorities and the companies because some minor variation from the usual form occurs in a particular ordinance or because some special provision is tucked away in an obscure ordinance, forgotten and afterward discovered."

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[1] From Prof. Clyde Lyndon King.

[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iv, p. 297.

Amount Invested in Street and Elevated Railway Lines in Massachusetts. The Massachusetts public service commission, under date of January 13, 1915, submitted (House Document No. 1636) a report showing that the total permanent investments in street railway and elevated lines in that state amounted, on July 30, 1914, to $201,124,351.83, of which $1,106,500 was working capital. This shows a total increase in permanent investments from September 30, 1902, of $89,837,714.31. An appendix to the report gives certain presumed facts as to the history of public ownership of transportation in Massachusetts.

"Electrical Measuring Instruments" is the title of Circular No. 20 of the bureau of standards. The monograph presents the fundamental principles underlying the construction and operation of commercial electrical measuring instruments, together with such information concerning the advantages and limitations of the various types of instruments as will assist the user in the determination of the general type best suited to a given purpose. The question of sources of error has been treated in some detail, with a threefold purpose: First, to suggest how some errors may be avoided; second, how corrections may be made for known sources of errors; and third, to furnish suggestions which will assist those who have to specify instrument performance or to select instruments.

Arguments against Public Ownership made easy and without cost is the evident intent of the loose-leaf items "For brief of arguments against public ownership" being circulated by the Bell telephone company. Thus, Item No. 268 on a perforated sheet, ready to slip into Index No. B 2, is an extract from a speech by Theodore Roosevelt in New Orleans on September 7, 1914. Item No. 269 is an extract from the report of the postmaster-general of the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1914. Item No. 282 is an extract from an English engineer who had been appointed to investigate the working of the telephone and telegraph systems in European countries. Supplement No. 23A is devoted to telephone and telegraph statistics of the world. Is it through carefully indexed, well-prepared items put up in ready reference form that a democracy is to be educated as to the disadvantages of public ownership and its utilities?

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The Gas Lease in Philadelphia.[1]—The annual report of Judson C. Dickerman, chief of the bureau of gas, Philadelphia, sets a high-water mark for merit. The function of this bureau is to supervise the quality of gas furnished to the citizens of the city, by the united gas improvement company as the lessee of the city's gas plant. The "gas lease" gave to the lessees the use of a plant of a book cost of $17,000,000 "and considered worth $30,000,000 by a city official in 1897," free from taxes and fees, with the right to receive for all gas sold from 90 to 75 cents per 1,000 cubic feet. The city, on its side, was to receive periodically increased payments in cash, a limited number of free gas street lamps, all free gas needed in public buildings for lighting purposes, certain improvements and enlargements in its gas works and the privilege of receiving back the property with certain expected improvements in 1927.

In 1897 consumers paid $3,000,000 for the gas then used. In 1914 consumers paid nearly $10,000,000 for gas at the rate of $1 per thousand cubic feet. In 1927, when the gas lease expires, consumers may be reasonably expected to be paying $20,000,000. From 1897 to 1915 consumers have paid the company over $117,000,000 for gas. Of this $117,000,000, $16,000,000 went in cash payments to the city; $20,200,000 is supposed to have gone, under the lease, to property added to the gas works; $2,800,000 for the street lamp service; and $65,100,000 is estimated as the cost of making and delivering the gas; leaving "a net profit over all expenditures or investments of $13,000,000 to the united gas improvement company in seventeen years." The estimated profit for the year 1915 was $2,250,000 on about 22 cents per thousand cubic feet. By 1925–27, the net profit will "very likely be $5,000,000 a year."

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[1] From Prof. Clyde Lyndon King.

Chief Dickerman particularly points out that there will be a "very natural attitude on the part of the lessees to restrict betterments throughout the years that are to follow the thirteen years before the end of the lease." That is, unless improvements made by them will make a profit to the company before 1927, it is to be expected that they will reluctantly make the improvements. The chief, therefore, recommends that "a competent engineering supervision beginning now" should "get records of the good service now given to compare with possible poorer service later, to study the effects of improvements in other places, keeping tabs on the growth of the business." Public officials should insist on a strict interpretation of the lease which provides that the city shall receive "a first class modern full capacity plant" at the end of the tenure. The chief further points out that the city could now operate the plant at a profit and sell gas at 65 cents per cubic foot. As pointed out above, the price is now $1; 20 cents of which goes into the city treasury and 80 cents to the company.

The Philadelphia plant is often held up as one of the "horrible examples" of municipal ownership in this country before the lease was signed. Prof. L. S. Rowe, in his book on "Problems of city government," devotes a chapter to the history of this Philadelphia plant and shows that it never was, in any true sense of the word, a *public* plant, being operated first under a trust (the trustees being competent to appoint their own successors under the judicial interpretation of particular statutes) and then finally by those who were interested in making the plant the "spoils of office" and a poor investment in order that certain financiers could take it over on a private lease.

The report also discusses the reasonableness of electric light rates in the city of Philadelphia, presenting, among other things, (a) the rates for electricity in certain American cities for power (2 kw. installation for 1914) and (b) electric rates for commercial lighting in designated cities.

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Municipal Ownership in Seattle.—The municipal light and power plant of Seattle, according to Oliver T. Erickson, has proved to be a great success. When it was first put into operation, the lighting rates were about 20 cents per kw. hour. Power rates were in about the same ratio. After the operation of the municipal plant, the rates were reduced practically 50 per cent. At the present time, the maximum rate for residence lighting is 5½ cents per kw. hour, with a rate of 2 cents for all consumption over 45 kw. hours per month. The municipal water plant has likewise been a success. It is stated that practically no city in the United States, under circumstances similar to those which prevail in Seattle, furnishes cheaper water to its residents than does this city.

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Public Safety Notes.[1]—*Calisthenic Manual for Firemen.* Commissioner Adamson of the New York fire department has issued to the uniformed force an illustrated calisthenic manual containing about thirty-six simple setting-up exercises, to be performed daily by all firemen for a period of fifteen minutes except when the men are fatigued from fire duty, when the exercise hour arrives. The commissioner hopes by means of these exercises to keep the men in as good physical condition as when they first entered the department.

Centralized Police Reserves. Commissioner Woods of New York is substituting centralized district reserve forces for the small precinct reserves formerly maintained for emergency use. Under this new plan a larger force under a competent superior officer will always be available for emergency service in each police district, in lieu of the small precinct forces formerly maintained in each precinct. Reserves will be transported to the scene of trouble in automobile patrol wagons.

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[1] From Leonhard Felix Fuld, Ph.D.

President of International Police Association. By electing Michael Regan, chief of police of Buffalo, as its president, the international association of chiefs of police has placed at the head of the police profession in America a man who closely approximates the ideal American police officer. Chief Regan has risen to his present position from the ranks; he has displayed more than average personal and moral courage in the performance of his duties and he is a close student of police administration throughout the world.

Prizes for Police Suggestions. Commissioner Woods of the New York police department has recently commended several policemen for submitting to him excellent suggestions for improving the efficiency of the police administration. Among the suggestions which won awards were the following: Substitution of a blackboard containing complaints and orders for each patrol post, instead of reading such orders to all policemen from the desk; the establishment of a permanent school of instruction for all ranks; the equipment of an automobile for emergency life-saving, fire-fighting and criminal investigation work; the equipment of police signal boxes for the transmission of citizens' calls; the detention of prisoners at centralized court prisons instead of at precinct station houses.

Care of Policemen's Feet. The Bulletin of the New York Police Department for July is devoted to an exceptionally clear exposition of the proper care of the feet. This bulletin explains the structure of the feet, the causes of painful foot conditions and the best hygienic measures and exercises to prevent such foot troubles. The careful study of this bulletin by the members of the New York force will greatly increase their physical efficiency. The bulletin possesses such great police value that chiefs of police in other cities should seek to place the material contained in it within reach of their own men.

Resignation of Major Sylvester. The retirement because of ill-health of Major Sylvester, Washington's superintendent of police, removes from active police service the man who has done more than any one else to place American police administration on a plane of efficiency. His annual reports for more than a decade have been models of what police reports should be, the International association of chiefs of police which he organized has served to bring together in a bond of good fellowship and active co-operation all police officials on this continent and his central clearing house for finger-print and Bertillon records, which has been at the call of police officers of every city, has served to detect and has aided in the arrest of numerous criminals. Major Sylvester is succeeded by Raymond W. Pullman, a newspaper man with wide experience in social service work but without any experience in police work.

Veteran Policemen in Albany. Albany policemen who after many years of faithful service are not capable of severe or prolonged physical exertion, but are still valuable members of the department, are assigned to the veteran grade, given light details and a salary of $600. This plan would seem to be in the interests of economy and efficiency.

Seattle Police Report. The report of Austin E. Griffiths, chief of police of Seattle, to the mayor of that city containing 45 observations and suggestions relating to police work contains an admirable summary of the fundamental principles of modern American police administration.

Chicago Crime Report. The recent report of the Chicago council committee on crime contains a clear exposition of the causes of American police inefficiency and numerous recommendations for the correction of these causes, which have been obtained by criminological, psychological and sociological research. The practical police officer will find its recommendations for the improvement of police organization and methods in Chicago most helpful. The recommendations are sound in principle and many of them have already been adopted by the New York police department.

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Organization of Policewomen.—The policewomen of the country have been organized to attract women of the best type. They will spread the idea of putting women on the police force, placing special emphasis upon crime prevention and protective measures for women and children, without interfering in any way with the regular police work. Mrs. Alice Stebbins Wells of Los Angeles has been chosen president of the organization which is an outcome of the Baltimore meeting of the National conference of charities and correction; Miss Mary S. Harvey of Baltimore, vice-president; Mrs. Georgianna Sherrot of Minneapolis, secretary; and Miss Annie McCully of Dayton, treasurer.

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Chicago's Efficiency Division.—Following shortly after the inauguration of Mayor William Hale Thompson, his completely new civil service commission made a sweeping attack upon its own efficiency division by discontinuing the services of the greater portion of the permanent staff and indicating an intention of wiping out the division entirely. Percy B. Coffin, chairman of the new civil service commission, with the concurrence of his associates, E. C. Racey and J. P. Geary, in issuing the ouster order, assigned "lack of work and funds" as the reason for this action. This was made despite the fact that appropriations in the 1915 budget were available. At least five investigations were under way and a request for the beginning of six other surveys had been made by the city council finance committee.

Rebuked in this move, the civil service commission then raised the cry of "extravagance" and "illegality of appropriations" for the positions in the efficiency division. President Coffin also stated, among other things, to the press, that "the commission's action was no scheme to get employment for anyone else and that the places made vacant would not be filled."

A charge of extravagance or other charges required by the civil service law before employes can be removed from the civil service in Chicago did not materialize, and temporary appointments have been made to more than half of the vacated positions without regard to the civil service law and existing reinstatement lists, the commission taking a new stand "that the positions provided for under the civil service commission are not under the classified service and may therefore be filled without regard to civil service." Those who have studied the law governing the civil service administration in Chicago have not been able to find any basis for this position, and have advised the employes who are affected to take court action, which advice has since been followed.

The real underlying causes of the upheaval seem to be the pressure of the Chicago federation of labor, which objected to an effort of the efficiency division to work out, with the city departments, some solution to the question of inefficiency and superannuation among members of the trades, and the desire, it seems, of certain forces of the new administration to be left free to do as they please, without check on work and expenditures. The demands and necessity of loading up the pay-roll with "political obligations" incumbered during the mayorality campaign also seem, from subsequent happenings, to have prompted the above-mentioned actions of the administration.

Ignoring the campaign promises of Mayor Thompson that he would not build up a political machine and that he would encourage any and all agencies which make for responsible government, the tactics of the mayor's newly appointed civil service commission, in violating the civil service law which it was sworn to enforce in all departments and in disorganizing the efficiency division, precipitated a fight by members of the council, and has brought forth protests from civic organizations and the press.

The efficiency division was first created by council action and made a part of the civil service commission early in 1909, under J. L. Jacobs, who has taken great pride in developing his work. This action was taken as a result of disclosures brought out in investigations by the municipal efficiency commission and the so-called Merriam commission on city expenditures, which found unbusinesslike and loose methods and general lack of system or control of the 18,000 civil service employes in the city departments. Appropriations of approximately $30,000 have been made each year since. The permanent staff of experts and investigators which were recruited from the civil service eligible registers has, at the request of the council, the finance and other committees thereof, and of department heads, investigated and reported on the organization activities and methods of practically every department of the city government.

During this period, in co-operation with the council and the department heads, civil service administration has been raised to a high business standard, conditions of employment improved, both as to service rendered and opportunities of employes, and various measures adopted looking toward effective and responsible government administration.

In such inquiries it was found that the information thus obtained, beyond the specific result in view, has been vital, first, to the finance committee and the council in determining judicious apportionment of the $40,000,000 appropriated each year; second, to the departments and bureaus in securing and maintaining efficient administration; and third, to the civil service commission in the proper selection and control of the service and the promotion and separation of employes. The efficiency division had become an integral part of the municipal government, acting as a co-ordinating force as between departments and council committees. With a broad and general view of the entire activities of the city administration, it was in a position to aid the different branches of the service in the preparation of estimates and the annual budget, to solving problems of employment, management and methods.

The finance committee, which is composed of fifteen of the most independent and aggressive members of any such committee Chicago has had for a number of years, and a number of other aggressive council members, have taken up the fight for the continuation of the work begun by the efficiency division.

Through the committee on finance, an ordinance was presented and passed unanimously by the council at its last meeting held July 16, 1915, establishing a department to be known as the board of standards and apportionment, which is to be under the supervision and control of a board consisting of the city comptroller and a representation of the council committee on finance, consisting of the chairman and three members thereof. Fifteen thousand dollars was appropriated at the same time for the expenses and salaries of the staff to carry on the work during the remainder of 1915. This ordinance has not, to this date, been signed by the mayor, who, under the council rules, has the right to withhold his signature or may veto an ordinance until the next council meeting. Owing to the summer vacation, the next meeting will not be held until the first week in October. It appears, however, that a sufficiently large majority of the council, which perhaps is the strongest and most independent council Chicago has had, is aligned to have this board begin work immediately. Should the mayor veto the ordinance, a successful fight over his veto will probably result.

The ordinance as passed provides that the board shall annually, between September 1 and December 1, prepare and transmit to the committee on finance a budget of the amounts estimated to be required during the ensuing fiscal year, to meet the necessary outlays, expenses and liabilities of Chicago, and in other ways to exercise supervision over all budgetary matters. Each department is required, under the ordinance, to submit to the city comptroller, not later than August 1 of each year, an estimate in writing of the amounts necessary "in such form and manner, and shall be supported by such work programs, schedules and exhibits as the board of standards shall prescribe." It is a further duty of the board to "conduct such investigations and studies from time to time of the efficiency of organization, administration, engineering and operating accounting, finance and business procedure of the various departments and units of the municipal government and prescribe such standards and specifications necessary to secure economy and efficiency, as will enable it to pass with intelligence upon the various departmental estimates."

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A Unique Example of Efficiency Methods as applied to cleaning filter beds is afforded by Philadelphia, where the principles of scientific management have been applied by the bureau of water. This bureau lays out the work of each gang of men in such a way as to provide a definite task to be accomplished by each individual, and by all, in a day. The method employed is: Rotation of cleaning the filters is planned in advance by well-defined rule; a definite area of sand to clean is assigned to each gang, this area depending upon the depth of cleaning necessary. This setting of tasks has increased the output of each gang 15 per cent and it is expected to increase it at least 25 per cent. Accurate records are kept, showing the time consumed by each gang. Cost accounts, as well as pay-roll, are made up from the time tickets furnished to the men; improved apparatus and machinery are under consideration; methods of determining depths of sand to clean are being standardized.

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Service Instruction for Street Cleaners.—Commissioner Fetherston of the New York street cleaning department has introduced a system of service instruction for his employes by publishing a set of text-books on each of the standard operations of street cleaning and by providing for the giving of systematic instruction from these text-books by the foremen at regular intervals.

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City Planning in Ohio.—The 1915 legislature has enacted a law whereby the council of each municipality that is still operating under the general municipal code of 1902 may establish a city planning commission of seven members: the mayor, the service director, the president of the board of park commissioners and four citizens of the municipality, who shall serve without compensation and who shall be appointed by the mayor for terms of six years, except that the term of two of the members of the first commission shall be for three years. Whenever such a commission is appointed it shall have all the powers conferred in the general code; and to make plans and maps of the whole, or any portion of the city and of any land outside the municipality, which in the opinion of the commission bears relation to the planning of the city, and to make changes in such plans or maps when it deems same advisable. Such maps or plans shall show the commission's recommendations for new streets, alleys, ways, viaducts, bridges, subways, parkways, parks, playgrounds or any other public grounds or public improvements, and the removal, relocation, widening or extension of such public works then existing. With a view to the systematic planning of the municipalities, the commission may make recommendations to the mayor, council and department heads concerning the location of streets, transportation and communication facilities, public buildings and grounds. It also has the power to control, preserve and care for historical land marks, to control in the manner provided by ordinance the design and location of statuary and other works of art, which are or may become the property of the city, and the removal, relocation and alteration of any such works belonging to the municipality; and the design of harbors, bridges, viaducts, street fixtures and other public structures and appurtenances.

The passage of the bill involves some interesting history. The bill was apparently dead and the legislature was in its last legislative day, with the politicians all opposed to the measure. The city planning committee of the Women's city club of Cincinnati, Mrs. B. A. Wallingford, chairman, took hold of the matter, rescued the measure from the waste basket and put it through. The American City Bureau's city planning exhibition was in Cincinnati at the time and the activities connected with it was one of the chief elements in making it possible to put through the city planning commission law, arousing the city club and similar organizations to the possibilities of the situation. The exhibition was held under the auspices of the United city planning committee of Cincinnati (E. L. Heinsheimer, chairman; C. R. Hebble, secretary).

An excess condemnation law was also passed by the Ohio legislature.

◆

St. Louis Art Commission.—St. Louis has established an unpaid municipal art commission of nine to advise the board of public service in regard to the design and decoration of all public structures. The commission will serve as an auxiliary just as the city plan commission does. Three of the members of the new commission serve as ex-officio members: The president of the board of public service, director of the city art museum and commissioner of parks and recreation.

◆

Ousting Mayors.—Governor Willis of Ohio has announced that he will not take any action on the complaints made to him against Mayor Keller of Columbus. In a formal statement explaining his decision, the governor said that he would take a similar attitude in regard to mayors of other municipalities concerning whom objections have been voiced. Only positive danger to the city of pillage, disorder, or misrule would justify him exercising his power to remove the mayor of a municipality. Otherwise the whole theory of civic responsibility would be upset, and the right of municipalities to govern themselves would be invaded. Governor Willis pointed out that the complainants have their remedy in the courts, where the accused officials would have full right of trial. This remedy was provided in the statute passed at the 1912 session in compliance with the constitutional amendment adopted to facilitate the removal of objectionable officials.

◆

London Councillors in Active War Service.—The war has made great gaps in the ranks of municipal councillors. No less than 21 municipal reform members of the London county council are on service at the front. Naturally there is difficulty in manning the numerous committees of the council, and upon those members of the council who are able to continue their civic service falls a largely increased amount of work. The weekly meetings of the council since the recess have been remarkable for their unanimity and brevity. All parties on the council seem to have agreed to eliminate the party spirit and to conduct London government upon business lines. It is strange that one great aim of the London municipal society, for which they have striven earnestly should have been thus fully accomplished through an outbreak of war.

As regards the London borough councils, they also have lost many members who have gone on active service. Actual figures are not yet available, but probably a hundred borough councillors are serving their counry.

◆

German Unemployment.[1]—The dislocation of industry at the outbreak of war caused widespread unemployment in Germany which seems to have been more severe in the case of women than of men. Strenuous efforts have been made to meet the needs of the former apparently with a large degree of success. Thus the women's department of the central employment office in Berlin, which filled 20,447 places in the business year 1913–14, has filled no fewer than 52,463 places in 1914–15. At the outbreak of war, when the distress was greatest, the office directly cared for 3,000 women. It provided work rooms, borrowed machinery from manufacturers, secured contracts from the war department and put its charges to work making shirts, trousers, felt shoes, etc., for soldiers. Large quantities of leather goods for military uses were also manufactured by these women. Outside the shops established by the central employment office women are being placed in chemical factories and men's tailoring shops, operate elevators and, equipped with bicycles, do messenger work. They clean windows and have taken up the work of destroying insect pests. A female chimney-sweep is also reported. Large numbers have found employment as street car conductors, and the first woman driver of a motor truck made her appearance some time ago. There are a great many female cab-drivers, most of them young women from the country who have been familiar from childhood with horses and wagons. In the agricultural districts women laborers are in larger demand than ever and during the harvest season this demand was, of course, very great. Special efforts were made by the central office in behalf of unemployed women who had been trained for commercial work. It put itself into communication with government departments, the courts, the museum administration, banks, insurance companies, law offices, etc., and was thus able to secure many places for educated women who had lost their former employment.

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[1] From Prof. Robert C. Brooks.

Of 9,000 conductors and motormen on the street railway system of Greater Berlin, 4,000 were called to the colors immediately upon the outbreak of war. From time to time considerable drafts have been made upon the remainder. To meet these losses in part, the company has employed women, of whom about two thousand are now working as conductors. Others are being prepared to fill vacancies in five schools for the training of women conductors which have been established in Charlottenburg, Lichterfelde, Treptow, Lichtenberg and Weissensee. In these schools three days of eight hours each are devoted to theoretical instruction, after which the students are given practical training on cars. Before appointment each candidate must pass a final examination conducted by a traffic inspector. Berlin has taken the innovation sympathetically and it is conceded that the women are performing their duties successfully. It is not the intention of the companies, however, to continue their employment after the war.

II. POLITICS[1]

Chicago Street Railway Strike.—In June, Chicago for two days was tied up by a strike of 10,800 employes of the surface roads which carry an average of 3,044,650 passengers a day and 3,200 employes of the elevated roads which carry an average of 712,000 passengers a day. The surface roads operate 1,095 miles of track, and the elevated, 215. Mayor Thompson[2] took a firm hand from the start, and sought conciliation first, then insisted on arbitration. He is properly given credit for a victory. He held the traction company officials and the union leaders in his office for eighteen hours in an all night session behind closed doors until they agreed to arbitration and an arbitrator. A temporary agreement was signed to be in force until the board of arbitration gave its verdict. The following were in the conference:

Mayor William Hale Thompson, Alderman Henry D. Capitain, chairman of the aldermanic "peace" committee; Alderman James H. Lawley, Alderman John A. Richert, Alderman William J. Healy, Alderman Willis O. Nance, Leonard A. Busby, president of the Chicago surface lines; Britton I. Budd, president of the Chicago elevated railways; Henry A. Blair, chairman of the board of operation of the surface lines; William D. Mahon, international president of the car men's organization; William Taber, secretary surface lines union; William Quinlan, president of the surface lines union;

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[1] Except as otherwise indicated these notes are prepared by Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 484.

Edward McMorrow, general executive committeeman, surface lines union; L. D. Bland, editor of the *Union Leader*, the car men's official organ; John J. Bruce, president of the elevated men's union; Maurice Lynch, assistant secretary surface lines union; W. S. McClenathan, secretary of the elevated men's union and vice-president of their international association; James A. Pugh, Charles C. Fitzmorris, the mayor's secretary.

The arbitrators finally chosen were State Attorney Maclay Hoyne for the men, James M. Sheean for the companies and Mayor Thompson as umpire.

The Chicago *Tribune* in summarizing the results of the arbitration declared that the men had won a big victory in the arbitration. Under the old scale which precipitated the strike, the men had to work five years before receiving the maximum pay of 32 cents an hour. Now the men will be paid according to the following schedule:

	Old Scale Cents	New Scale Cents
FIRST YEAR OF CONTRACT		
First year men—		
First three months	23	26
Second three months	25	28
Second six months	26	29
Second year men—		
First six months	27	31
Second six months	28	31
Third year men	29	32
Fourth year men	30	33
Fifth year men	31	35
SECOND YEAR OF CONTRACT		
First year men—		
First three months	23	27
Second three months	25	29
Second six months	26	30
Second year men—		
First six months	27	32
Second six months	28	32
Third year men—	29	33
Fourth year men	30	34
Fifth year men	31	36
Snow plow and sweeper men		36e
		Month.
Car repair foremen (day)		$125
Car repair foremen (night)		110
Receivers		105
Tunnel and bridge men		75
Flag and crossing men		65

Mechanics in west side shops not under union contract will get a 3-cent an hour increase.

Car repairers, motor repairers, inspectors, dopers, and body repairers will receive $2.40 in first year of service, $2.70 in second year, and $3 in third year.

Car placers, $2.40 first year of service, after that $2.75 a day.

Cleaners, janitors, washers, and other line men, $2.10 a day first year of service and $2.40 thereafter.

The award will establish in Chicago the highest wages for street car men in the United States.

The car companies win but one big point—arbitration. They got that when Mayor Thompson locked all parties to the disagreement in his office in the memorable eighteen-hour conference. By establishing the arbitration principle under such spectacular and dramatic conditions both the car men and the company representatives believe that arbitration will render practically impossible strikes of car men for all time to come in Chicago.

The company's representative filed a dissenting opinion, but declared "the company, in view of the great public interest involved and the possible effects of such course upon the best interests and welfare of this community, has decided not to avail itself of its legal rights in this particular.

"I have endeavored to state my views frankly. I cannot concur in this award. I cannot concur in the method by which the award was reached; but notwithstanding this, the company which I represent wishes it distinctly understood that this award will be accepted and faithfully carried out. The company has stood and will continue to stand, for the principle of arbitration, regardless of whether the outcome in any particular arbitration favors one side or the other."

In the course of the hearings it was disclosed that the president of the street railway company received a salary of $60,000 a year.

Mayor Thompson, who was a member of the board of arbitrators, reached the following conclusions about the men:

1. Most of the employes of the traction companies are married men. 2. The average age of employes is 35. 3. The average length of service is eight years. 4. The average number of children in families of employes is two. 5. Ninety per cent of the men are married. 6. Very little money is saved by the employes. 7. Most of the men have their own homes, but are paying for them on installment plans. 8. The men saved money before joining the ranks of the street car employes. 9. Nearly all employes carry life insurance, averaging between $1,500 and $3,000, mostly with fraternal organi-

zations. 10. Very few employes carry no insurance. 11. The employes almost unanimously favor an old-age pension system. 12. Few employes have any savings in banks. 13. A large percentage of the men have no other trade or vocation. 14. Many employes sought work with the traction companies to better their conditions and to work in the open air.

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English Unions v. City Government.—In the wide survey of social and economic affairs made by the members of the trades union congress at Liverpool, it was inevitable that matters of direct or indirect interest to local authorities should have been discussed. That of widest importance was the question of the organization of municipal employes. The terms of the resolution on this subject were: "That any method of organization which seeks to divide workmen employed by public authorities or private employers from their fellows in the same occupations employed by private firms is detrimental to the best interests of trade unionism and that the parliamentary committee use its best endeavors to prevent the spread of such methods of organization." The mover of the resolution instanced the case of the Municipal employes' union, which, he pointed out, had induced workmen to join its ranks from other organizations. It would be dangerous, he contended, to endorse that principle. A representative of the Municipal employes' association, South London, moved as an amendment to the resolution to delete all the words after "detrimental to the" and substitute "financial interests of the amalgamated association of tramway and vehicle workers, the national amalgamated union of labor, and the gas workers' and general laborers' union, by the unskilled workmen of municipal bodies having a union of their own, the same as the postal and government workers, the railway servants, the miners, the builders' laborers, the cotton operatives and others." He said that when, 16 years ago, he entered the municipal service, he found that the men employed by the local authorities were not organized. He did his best to get men inside the ranks of that organization, and with a fair amount of success. On a vote by card the amendment was lost by an overwhelming majority, and the original resolution was then put and carried.

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Dallas, Texas.—Mayor Lindsley believes that the platform upon which a candidate is elected should be the guide of his administration, so he has set about redeeming his pledges. In a little over four months he and his colleagues have made the following record:

E. W. Bemis, Chicago, has been secured to make a thorough investigation of all public utilities in Dallas.

A model jitney ordinance has been passed and is now in force.

Bids have been awarded for purchasing 12,500 water meters, enough to meter every water connection in Dallas, preparatory to reducing water rate.

Arrangements are now being made to create 8-hour shifts for police instead of 12-hour shifts now obtaining. The police department has been reorganized, the chief's salary raised and the spirit of co-operation by the men is excellent.

In connection with the pavement of streets of the city, several reforms have been inaugurated. A municipal paving company is maintained by the city, saving 50 per cent on all maintenance work. No pavement is ordered unless street to be paved connects with other pavement.

The legal department has been conducting a fight defending the city's right to assess benefits where streets are opened for condemnation. This is holding up many opening and widening plans which should be carried out.

John Findlay Wallace has been employed to suggest correct solution to the grade crossing evil in Dallas. His men are now at work.

The city of Dallas has secured the agreement of a company furnishing natural gas to build lines adequate to supply the city under all conditions.

The city commissioners are investigating the Somers system of taxation.

An effort is being made to secure an

amendment to the state constitution making it possible to own bonds in the state without being compelled to pay taxes on them.

A complete reorganization of the health department has been made including sanitation, city health department and hospital work.

The department of public welfare has been effectively organized. Besides this, Carl H. Nau of Cleveland, Ohio, has been secured to make an investigation of the system now in use with the idea of increasing its efficiency.

✻

The Examination for the Cleveland Commissionership of Charities and Correction.—The new Cleveland charter provides that all appointive officers, except directors of departments and such heads of divisions as the civil service commission may determine, shall be in the classified service. The commission, after a public hearing at which the Civic league strenuously urged that all heads of divisions be kept in the classified service, decided to do so. In due course the various examinations were held. J. B. Vining was the incumbent in the office of commissioner of charities and correction. He, together with three Cleveland citizens and an assistant in a similar department in Philadelphia, took the examination. Mr. Vining stood fourth. Dr. Cooley, director of public welfare, wanted to reappoint Mr. Vining and took occasion to criticize the civil service commission on the manner of holding the examination and the character of the questions. Mr. Vining claimed that he answered some of the questions as a single taxer would answer them, and that the examining board, being hostile to single tax, discounted his replies. The Civic league tried to answer all of the criticisms in the following statement; and after it was published, no further discussion was had in the newspapers and Dr. Cooley appointed W. H. Winans, the man who stood second on the list, who, at the time of his appointment, was secretary to Dr. Cooley.

The Civic league statement declared that the league had completed its investigations of the civil service examination for the commissioner of charities and correction which was begun soon after Dr. Cooley and Mr. Vining entered their protests against the methods adopted and the questions used in the examination. Both criticized the commission for selecting a board of three citizens to conduct the examination. They asserted that the questions did not adequately cover the field and Mr. Vining declared in an open letter that he had been crucified because of his political and economic opinions.

The league's report of its investigation, which is signed by Morris A. Black, chairman of the executive board, Duane H. Tilden, chairman of the civil service committee, and Mayo Fesler, secretary, denies all of these charges and concludes that the examination in every detail was conducted in full conformity with the letter and spirit of the civil service law and the best practices of civil service commissions everywhere, and that it was a fair and sound method of determining the qualifications of candidates for the position. The report expressed regret that the director of the welfare department has shown a hesitancy to abide by the results of the examination which the league believes only tends to discourage competent men from entering the examinations for the higher positions. The report is a complete denial of the criticisms made by Director Cooley and a full approval of the methods used by the Civil service commission in the examination.

✻

The Political Activity of Women.—The revelations of election frauds at *Terre Haute* have astounded the country. The conviction of those responsible for them reassured those who felt perturbed over the situation. The "cleaning up" is to be attributed largely to the women of the city. "While," as the Philadelphia *Ledger* points out, "the majority of the men were too disgusted and disheartened to keep up the fight for honest government, the women stuck to the end. They watched the polls, they photographed the repeaters, and then they demanded that the government of the United States take a hand in cleaning up the situation and finally brought the leaders of the city in line to fight for decency." In *Warren, Ill.,* Mrs. Angela Rose Canfield was elected mayor, being the first woman ever chosen to such an office in that state. In *West Hammond, Ill.,* Mrs. Charles Washburne, formerly Virginia Brooks[1] took an active part in the recent campaign and succeeded in electing the head of the Taxpayers' ticket, Paul Kamradt, pledged to clean up unlicensed saloons and disorderly houses in the red light district, defeating her oldtime enemy, Martin Finneran.

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Frostburg's City Manager.—The remarks of George Stern of Frostburg, Md., at the Baltimore meeting of the National Municipal League[2] brought forth several queries which we asked Mr. Stern to answer for the benefit of our readers. Here is the note we wrote him:

"We are writing to ask whether you will send us a brief note making clear the following points:

"(1) Whether you resigned as mayor to become city manager or combined the two offices?

"(2) Whether you actually served as manager or retired when the council insisted in retaining all the old employes?

"(3) How long you served as city manager, if at all?

"(4) Did someone else become city manager and if so when, and who that person is if he is still in office?"

This is the reply:

"(1) Under a resolution of council, I was named city manager in addition to my duties as mayor.

"(2) The city officials however—water superintendent, street superintendent, clerk (these three had been elected by the council at its first meeting), and the chief of police (elected by the people) refused to render reports asked for by the city manager and to do their share in reorganizing the work along the lines I suggested; when I brought the matter to the attention of the council, it refused to take action necessary to give me sufficient authority to do the work, and of course, I resigned as city manager.

"(3) I served one month.

"(4) No one else has been named city manager."

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Oakland, Cal., Politics.—A misplaced "and" made it appear on page 487 of the July issue as if William S. Irving was the Socialist candidate. The sentence should have read: "there were three candidates, the present incumbent; J. Stitt Wilson, the Socialist candidate; and William S. Irving." In condensing the item on the proof the initials of the successful candidate, William S. Irving, got awry. The mistakes are regretted. They were promptly discovered by the editor, but too late for correction.

III. JUDICIAL DECISIONS

Obstruction of Street a Nuisance.—The Maryland court of appeals in *B. & O. R. R. Co. vs. Gilmore,*[3] held that the obstruction of a highway being a "common nuisance" and a public wrong, the proper remedy is by indictment and criminal proceedings; that the only persons who may maintain a civil action are those who suffer peculiar damage from such obstruction, and that in case plaintiff fails to show peculiar damage, he is not entitled to an injunction.

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Governmental Functions: Liability for Negligence.—The Minnesota supreme court in *Ackert vs. Minneapolis,*[4] found that municipalities are not liable in damages for negligence in performing municipal functions unless such liability has been imposed by statute, and except for injuries resulting from dangerous conditions in their streets. Under the Minnesota law this would, therefore, seem to be the only case in which a municipality can be held in damages in the absence of a statute imposing such liability.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, pp. 504, 677.

[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iv, p. 48.

[3] 94 A. 200.

[4] 150 N. W. 976.

⁂

Formation of Port Districts.—Under the Oregon statutes, a port district may be created as a separate municipality. The law provides for the inclusion within the district of certain prescribed territory. In *State vs. Johnson et al*[1] the supreme court of the state held that the fact of the inclusion within a proposed port of land not authorized under the statute does not invalidate the proceedings for incorporation where the quantity so included is negligible and its inclusion could have had no appreciable effect on the election, and it does not infringe on the taxable property of any other port.

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Independent Contractor and Municipal Liability for Nuisance.—The New York court of appeals held, in *Herman vs. City of Buffalo*,[2] that while a municipal corporation is answerable for damages caused by the maintenance of a nuisance on its land by its own servants, it is not liable for such a nuisance created by competent, independent contractors, or sub-contractors. The court found that an owner is not liable to third persons for the injurious acts of contractors, unless the acts are imposed on the owner, and thus cannot be delegated so as to exempt him from liability, or in case where the thing contracted to be done is necessarily unlawful or the injury is a direct result of the work required of the independent contractor under the terms of his contract or by the orders of the owner.

⁂

Recall: Last Preceding Election.—The California statutes provide that a petition for the recall of municipal officers shall be signed by voters equal in number to one-fourth of the votes cast for all candidates for the office occupied by the incumbent sought to be removed "at the last preceding municipal election at which such officer was voted for." The district court of appeal for the second district, in *Robinson vs. Anderson*,[3] held that the election to be considered in determining the number of petitioners for the recall of certain trustees is the last regular municipal election at which the particular officers sought to be recalled were voted for, and not a subsequent election at which other trustees were voted for.

⁂

Bona Fide Purchasers of Municipal Bonds.—The circuit court of appeals, in *Dinet vs. Rapid City, S. D.*,[4] held that in an action on municipal bonds, contested on the grounds that the bonds were illegally issued because of an excess of the constitutional limit of indebtedness, and issued as a donation to a railroad company, though they on their face purported to be issued for the purpose of funding a valid indebtedness, the testimony of a witness to the effect that in a conversation with plaintiff prior to the election, at which the bonds were voted, the plaintiff made statements as to the necessity of carrying the election, might properly be admitted as evidence as to whether he was a purchaser in good faith of the bonds.

⁂

Acceptance of Highway by City.—The Kentucky court of appeals held, in *Mulligan vs. McGregor*,[5] that a city cannot be charged with the duty of accepting and caring for a street by the mere fact that such a street is dedicated within its limits. The court found that the city has the right to elect whether it will assume the burdens of accepting and maintaining the street, and until it does so elect, cannot, by however long usage by the public, be charged with such duty.

In *Curran vs St. Joseph*,[6] the Missouri supreme court held that while the dedication of the street and the approval by the city does not require the city to maintain and repair it as a street for the use of the public, the city is so obligated when it devotes a highway to the use of the public or invites the public to use it as a street.

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[1] 147 P. 926.

[2] 108 N. E. 451.

[3] 147 P. 1182.

[4] 222 Fed. 497.

[5] 176 S. W. 1129.

[6] 175 S. W. 584.

⁂

Negligence of Employe and Municipal Liability.—In *Rogers vs. City of Atlanta,*[1] the supreme court of Georgia had for consideration a case in which plaintiff sought damages for personal injuries alleged to have been received in consequence of the negligence of firemen in the employ of the city. The facts alleged were that in response to an alarm of fire, sent in by a member of plaintiff's family, the firemen came to the building, and finding smoke issuing from it, cut a hole for the purpose of ascertaining the character of the fire or to enable them to control it. The court held that even assuming the cutting of the hole and the leaving of it in an exposed condition to be negligence on the part of the firemen, the city was not liable for damages caused by such negligence, the court holding in general terms that a municipality is not liable for the acts of its servants and officers in the performance of official and governmental duty.

Liability of the individuals directly responsible is illustrated in the Oregon case of *Pullen vs. City of Eugene.*[2] In that case the supreme court found that the mayor and councilmen of the city, although they received no compensation for their services as such, were liable for injuries caused by reason of a defective street, it being shown that with notice of the defects they had failed to remedy them, although authorized by the charter of the city to do so.

⁂

Written and Oral Contracts.—In *Carson vs. City of Dawson,*[3] a valid contract having been entered into providing that no claim for extra labor or material should be allowed unless ordered in writing by the city, and further providing that the city should have the right to make alterations in certain particulars of the work, found that these provisions are independent, so that changes and alterations having been made, necessitating an increase in expense, the contractors were entitled to recover the value of the necessary labor and material, though no written order therefor had been given.

IV. MISCELLANEOUS

Street Trees in Los Angeles.—A committee of the Los Angeles city club was appointed to investigate the condition of the street trees and to make recommendations for the improvement thereof. It reported that the city was in urgent need of a consistent and uniform method of planting and cultivating trees on the street parkings to provide shade and ornamentation for the streets, thereby contributing also to the healthfulness of the city. The existing trees have been planted in a haphazard manner as regards variety, uniformity of appearance and suitable location. The maintenance of the trees has been neglected both in cultivation and pruning. In recent years various attempts have apparently been made by owners of subdivisions to plant and maintain uniform street trees with fairly good results; but whenever the lots pass into the hands of individual owners, the trees in many instances show the lack of proper attention. The committee made an inspection of the trees planted by the park department early in 1914, and they were found to be in excellent condition as a result of the continuous maintenance provided. Eleven miles of street trees were planted at that time, principally those connecting with country roads leading into the city; this work was provided for and performed by men temporarily out of employment at that time. The cost of this work amounted to $1.25 per tree for excavation, planting, staking and purchase, and the maintenance has amounted to approximately 5 cents per tree per month, or 60 cents per tree per year, water not charged.

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[1] 84 S. 555.

[2] 147 P. 768.

[3] 176 S. W. 197.

Continuing these investigations, the committee found that the city council had recently passed an ordinance providing for the planting, protection and care, and the removal and change of shade and ornamental trees on public streets and for the maintenance thereof and for the levying and collecting of assessments to pay the cost thereof.

This ordinance provides legal authority to carry on the work, and under this plan the committee was assured that an ordinary tree may be provided, planted and maintained for five years at an average cost of about $4 per tree, which will mean an assessment of about $4 for an ordinary lot for the entire cost of the tree and maintenance for five years.

In addition to this new work proposed, the committee reported that more or less street tree planting has been done on practically every street in the city, and while many of these trees have matured and acquired a creditable growth, many others have been absolutely neglected, so that most of our city streets, especially in the older parts of the city, provide a heterogeneous and not at all creditable appearance from the standpoint of street tree ornamentation. It is obvious that some plan must be worked out for the care of this older planting and it appears clearly, also, that it would be hardly fair or practicable to attempt to care for this condition under the assessment plan. Much consideration was given to this phase of the problem, and the following general conclusions were arrived at by the committee:

"It goes without saying that the care and maintenance of the street trees—in a word, the city forestation—naturally belongs to the park department, which is the only department of the city that is thoroughly equipped to do this work, in short, that understands the job. And we are assured that, given proper financial support, the park department will be very glad to assume the obligation of caring for the street tree planting on a comprehensive scale.

"The department maintains a nursery where all varieties of trees required may be propagated at cost, and at such times and in such quantities as may be desired. The employes of the Park Department are trained in the care and cultivation of trees, and the park department has a most efficient superintendent who is himself a trained forester, so that without any unnecessary expense for supervision, and without the creation of a new salaried office, through an existing organization, with the co-operation of the department the city is in a position to proceed with the intelligent care of its shade trees if the city council gives the word."

The committee recommended an annual appropriation by the council of a fund sufficient to prosecute the work in each district of cultivating, pruning and maintaining existing trees, planting young trees in unplanted spaces and removing undesirable specimens. A method was suggested by the committee, whereby this necessary fund could be raised and should be raised without its constituting an additional burden on tax-payers: Ordinance No. 27,364, Section 2, passed April 15, 1913, provides that the city shall receive 10 cents for each and every wagon load of gravel taken out of the river bed, but for some reason this ordinance is a dead-letter and is not enforced. This ordinance, if enforced as it should be, would provide a revenue of approximately $20,000 per year to the city from this particular source.

In a subsequent report the committee took great pleasure in reporting substantial progress, in that the welfare and financial committees of the council having this matter in charge gave the committee a satisfactory hearing and passed resolutions which will accomplish the desired object.

The first referred to the tree-planting fund and is to be made operative at once, in the hands of the park department.

A second motion was passed, authorizing the appointment of a committee to consider the ordinance No. 27,364 providing for the receiving by the city of 10 cents for each and every wagon load of gravel taken from the river bed, reporting as to the causes for the non-inforcement of said ordinance and the feasibility of making it immediately operative.

The committee was much gratified at the interest taken by the members of the council, and especially pleased at the reception given the report. Not only was the subject accorded the attention it deserves, but the chairman of the council praised the work of the committee in preparing a report showing so much preparation and he did not hesitate to compliment the City Club for its zeal and well-directed efforts in a line of work so vital to the growth and beauty of the city.

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Movies in Parks.—The Boston Park management now includes moving picture shows for adults, as well as children. Health, educational and general motion pictures with explanatory stereopticon slides and music are given, as well as the current news of the world. Special new picture of Boston resources for recreation and civic progress are also included. The committee in charge (Seymour Stone, chairman) represents the following organizations: Boston society for relief and control of tuberculosis, Boston Y. M. C. A., Boston Y. M. C. U., Women's municipal league, Massachusetts child labor committee, Immigration department of State Y. M. C. A., Milk and baby hygiene association, District nursing association, Massachusetts society for prevention of cruelty to animals, Poster campaign of associated charities.

So far as the committee has been able to learn, the undertaking has not been tried in any other city in the United States, Toledo's attempt to establish a municipal motion picture theatre having been frustrated by the courts. Motion pictures of special propaganda character have been used in the parks of Chicago and Providence, playgrounds of Newark and New York and elsewhere, but the Boston plan is more extensive than any of these, providing balanced and varied programs in which the special propaganda is but a part. So far, the committee asserts, the project has been a complete success.

The programs given in Boston parks are varied frequently and the same program is not given twice in one place. Motion pictures of known merit are used as well as current weekly news and humorous films. Music in some form accompanies each entertainment. A special feature to be introduced will be pictures showing the resources of the city for recreation, civic progress and good living.

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An Anti-Fly Campaign.—Salt Lake City is making as an incident of a general "clean town" movement an anti-fly campaign. In fact the latter seems to furnish the impetus for the larger movement, for in the report from Salt Lake City, in speaking of the movement, the account reads "It is conducted hand in hand with the anti-fly campaign." The method adopted by Salt Lake City is similar to one that was first put into effect some years ago by Prof. C. F. Hodge at Worcester, Mass., where he was instrumental in having prizes offered to the school children for the largest number of flies they might turn in. Salt Lake City has been offering a bounty of 10 cents per hundred for all flies turned in to the board of health before June 15. After that date the bounty was changed from 10 cents per hundred to 15 cents per pint. Commenting on this plan, Professor Hodge admits that after the first year's experience it was his conviction that the wrong kind of offer had been made, for it was discovered that the children, keen to win the prizes, had gone into a systematic business of breeding flies and the quantities they turned in at Worcester were enormous. Speaking at the convention of the American Civic Association of that contest Professor Hodge said he thought another year prizes ought to be offered for the smallest number of flies that could be discovered, although he expressed a doubt as to just how to arrive at that kind of a competition. But with the fly as the "propagating" agency for a large and important clean town movement, Salt Lake City has been conducting an important work, which has been systematically carried out by organizing clean-town clubs in every school district, subdividing these clubs into squads and making each squad responsible for a block in each school district.

◆

Size of Los Angeles.—According to figures compiled by J. D. Burks, efficiency director, the recent annexation of Palms and San Fernando makes Los Angeles, in point of area, the second city in the United States. The total area of the city is now 279 square miles, while the area of New York City is 286 square miles. These figures exclude the water area, which is sometimes included in the statements of municipal dimensions. If the water areas in other cities with which Los Angeles stands comparison were included, however, Los Angeles would still retain second place.

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City Mother's Bureau.[1]—Since the establishment of the Los Angeles Bureau six months ago, it has handled, aside from numerous minor ones, 250 cases. It filed only two juvenile petitions for delinquency and two complaints in domestic troubles and child desertion. All other cases were adjusted out of court, and A reporting occasionally as doing finely. are recent report says: "We have passed several ordinances abating nuisances, such as putting lights in the jitneys; the principals and vice-principals of the schools are co-operating, and meet with us once a month, the results of which are marvelous; we have established municipal dances, one every two weeks, which have been successful. One thing is greatly needed, an industrial school for these girls and boys, which we hope in time to accomplish."

◆

The Seventh National Conference on City Planning[2] was held at Detroit, June 7–9. A delegation, seventeen strong, appeared at the conference from the chamber of commerce in Toledo. They were sent over because the chamber of commerce there, which has just taken a new lease of life, wanted to see how it could help in local city planning work. Delegates from fifteen different national organizations were there to see how the bodies which they represented could co-operate to advance city planning education. There were present, too, a number of real estate men from various parts of the country, attracted because they felt that a knowledge of city planning would help them in laying out their properties.

This conference differed from previous ones in that the consideration of two important problems was extended over two sessions each. The first of these two special subjects was entitled, "The best methods of land sub-division." Last year the conference held that this subject was of such vital importance that they appointed a committee to conduct a study of it throughout the year. This year's sessions on the subject were in the nature of a preliminary report and discussion of this subcommittee, the report being presented by E. P. Goodrich of New York. Some twenty-five to thirty cities had responded to the questionnaire sent out by the committee, and, while no final conclusions were reached, distinct progress was made in determining those points on which the experience of most cities showed agreement. For example, it was held that the width of lots as originally laid down on the map had very little effect on the character or intensity of the use of the property. With a view to future convertibility, a depth of much less than 80 to 100 feet was believed inadvisable, and on the other hand that it was rarely desirable to have a greater depth than 150 feet; furthermore, that there might well be considerable difference in the width of the streets, depending on the intensity of their use, provided that the building lines of the narrower streets should be so controlled as to make it possible at some future time to widen the street at no great expense to the city. It was also felt that, in general, it is almost impossible to obtain a satisfactory development of a subdivision without adequate restrictions imposed by covenant in the deed, or if possible, by ordinance or law.

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[1] See vol. iv, p. 124.

[2] From George B. Ford, New York.

The other major topic for discussion was "The constitution and powers of a city planning authority." Dr. Robert H. Whitten, of New York, reported for the committee in charge of investigating the subject. Here again the paper summarized the replies to an elaborate questionnaire sent generally to city planning authorities throughout the country. It was felt in general that city planning authorities had better be advisory to the city legislative body, and that it was questionable whether it was desirable that they should have any veto power. It was felt that, except in the smaller communities, the art commission and the city planning authority should be quite distinct from one another. It was felt, too, that, except in the smaller cities, the city planning commission should not be composed, as a rule, of city officials.

In discussing the paper, Frank B. Williams, of New York, showed how arbitrarily the city planning authorities controlled the development and use of private property in the various cities of Europe, particularly in Germany, and what notable results were achieved by such a method. Thomas Adams, of Canada, felt that it was useless to try to do very much in the way of actual city planning until the community had a legal right to conduct city planning work as it should be conducted. George B. Ford, of New York, felt that the conferences had been leaning too overwhelmingly to the practical side, and that it was high time to emphasize again the importance of the aesthetic side. To that end he showed a number of slides illustrating the principles which underly attractiveness and good taste in civic architecture, showing that good taste need rarely mean any greater expense than poor taste.

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The American City is now published in two editions, the subscription being the same for each edition. The same number of pages of reading matter is found in each. In the regular edition the first 32 pages comprise articles of interest primarily to the larger municipalities; while in the remaining pages it is the aim to include articles of interest to municipalities of any size. In the "Town and Country" edition the first 32 pages are of value primarily to municipal officials or civic workers in places of less than five thousand inhabitants, or to those interested in county government and county improvements. The remaining pages are identical with the corresponding pages of the regular edition; and all of the advertising pages appear in both editions.

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The Citizen is the title of a new monthly magazine published by the Citizens' League of Indiana to promote the movement for a new constitution for Indiana.

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Winton L. Miller, formerly newspaper reporter, member of the staff of the Dayton bureau of municipal research, and recently secretary to City Manager Waite, has been named as city manager of St. Augustine, Florida. He assumed his new duties immediately after his appointment.

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John H. Humphreys, secretary of the Proportional representation society of London, expects to visit the United States and Canada this autumn. He will probably arrive in San Francisco in October. His address will be in care of C. G. Hoag, Haverford, Pa.

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Monsieur L. Dupriez has been teaching at Harvard since last February. In the spring he gave four public lectures there on the workings of proportional representation in European countries. This autumn he will give a regular college course on the subject.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLICATIONS

I. BOOK REVIEWS

Pitman's Municipal Office Organisation and Management: A Comprehensive Manual of Information and Direction on Matters connected with the Work of Officials of Municipalities. Edited by William Bateson, A.C.A., F.S.A.A., Borough Treasurer for the County Borough of Blackpool. With contributions by experienced authorities on municipal work and practice. With about 250 diagrams and forms. London: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, 1, Amen Corner, E. C. 25s. net.

This comprehensive compendium deals with the technique of municipal government, which has been developed to a much higher degree in Great Britain than in America. Some idea of its scope may be gathered from a brief summary of its leading articles. The editor deals with organization in general, office equipment, the finance department, old age pensions, and the national insurance acts; his colleague, A. S. Wright, deals with the town clerk's department; another colleague, F. Berry, the chief clerk in the public health department, treats of that important branch. Mr. Pringle, the chief constable of Blackpool, has written a treatise on the police department, including fire brigade, weights and measures and licenses; Percy Farnworth, borough treasurer of Bolton, has contributed the sections relating to cemeteries and burial grounds, baths and wash-houses, markets and fairs. W. Powell, chief librarian of Birmingham, gives expert information on his own subject. The section relating to gas undertakings is by E. Cooke, the accountant, and R. S. Hilton, secretary and manager; tramways by S. B. N. Marsh, of Birmingham; water-works, by E. J. Alban formerly of the Pontworidd and Rhondda joint water board; housing and town planning by W. S. Body of Birmingham; education by J. E. Pickles, director of education, county borough of West Bromwich; and the sewage disposal department by J. D. Watson, engineer and manager to the Birmingham, Tame and Rea Drainage board. Indeed there is no branch of municipal administration which is not treated with distinction by a capable and experienced man. The book of course is primarily designed for the British administrator, but it will prove highly suggestive to the American as well, because it will show him how things are done in a community where municipal government is regarded as a science and where those who are responsible for its conduct regard their work in the light of a dignified, honorable and useful profession.

Some conception of the magnitude of local government in England and Wales may be gathered from the fact that the local revenues in them are received by no less than 25,403 local authorities, made up as follows:

County councils........	62
Town councils..........	327
Metropolitan borough councils and the city corporation..........	29
Urban district councils...	818
Rural district councils...	666
Boards of guardians......	653
Overseers of the poor....	14,554
Parish councils, water boards, rivers boards, harbor authorities, etc.	8,294
Total......................	25,403

Over £64,000,000 per annum is spent by the principal classes of rate-spending authorities, supplemented by a sum of over £21,000,000 contributed by way of exchequer grants out of imperial funds.

American figures would, however, if properly tabulated, far exceed these, for our idea appears to be that the test of real democracy lies in the number of offices rather than in efficiency.

What the editor has to say on the subject of municipal trading is significant: Judging, says Mr. Bateson, by the financial results of the past, the control by municipalities of such monoplies as gas, electricity, tramways, markets, and water supply seems to furnish no good reason for fear as to the future. "The ratepayers of to-day owe a debt of gratitude to those who, a generation ago, by their foresight and good faith, established or acquired the municipal concerns which are now proving to be such increasingly valuable assets. Only a short time ago the cry was that municipal enterprise did not pay. Now the complaint is that it is paying too well; so much so that a demand is made for a reduction in the amount applied from these concerns to the relief of local rates in favor of the lessening of the charge for the supply of the commodities to the consumer."

To quote the editor still further: "To reflect upon what the municipality now does, or may do, for the community, is almost an inspiration. It controls the sanitary arrangements, looks after the physical well-being by means of gymnasia, baths and wash-houses, hospitals, parks, recreation grounds and open space; guides the culture of the mind and the education of the people by schools, libraries, art galleries, museums and historical buildings; makes pedestrian and vehicular traffic comfortable by good footpaths and roads; will restrain wrong-doing and makes right-doing easy by police supervision; protects property from fire; minimizes fraud by inspection of weights and measures; provides physical light, gas and electricity (those two commodities being also available for power for manufacturing purposes); affords a clean and wholesome water supply; makes locomotion convenient and expeditious by means of trams, light railways and 'buses; builds houses for the artisan classes; supplies allotments, asylums and gaols; controls docks and harbors; sees that old people receive pensions; relieves distress; and in a host of ways helps to make the conditions of life more bearable and comfortable; and when life's work is finished it finds one a resting place in the cemetery."

It will be gathered from these quotations that Mr. Bateson is a thoroughgoing believer in the present British municipal policy, the leading ideal of which may be said to be that "of a joint stock or co-operative enterprise, in which every citizen is a shareholder, and of which the dividends are receivable in the improved health and the increase in the comfort and happiness of the community. The members of the council are the directors of this great business, and their fees consist in the confidence, the consideration and the gratitude of those amongst whom they live."

The whole volume is an inspiring one because of its completeness and because of the silent, but effective testimony it bears to the growth of the science of municipal government in the mother country.

Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

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Readjustments in Taxation. Philadelphia: The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. March, 1915.

This volume of the *Annals*, in charge of Dr. E. M. Patterson, is unusually informing, not merely because of the timeliness of the subjects discussed, but also because many of the contributions are by well-known authorities and by experts of wide experience in the administration of municipal affairs. In general the various contributions fall under four heads: (1) Introduction, (2) national taxation, (3) state problems and their solution, and (4) local taxation.

The introduction on newer tendencies in American taxation by Professor E. R. A. Seligman forms an excellent outline to the general thought of the volume. Indeed, it may be said that the other papers are for the most part illustrations of the fundamental principles or tendencies of fiscal development pointed out by Professor Seligman. There are, according to this authority, four tendencies now visible in the United States. First, there is a tendency to replace personal taxes by real or specific taxes, and a counter movement from real to personal taxation. A second tendency is from local to general taxation on the administrative side, and again a counter tendency from the general to the local tax in the matter of proceeds. A third movement is from property as a basis of taxation to the yield of property of which the income tax is a good illustration. The fourth tendency aims to abandon the benefit theory of taxation and to adopt the theory of the ability to pay. And, finally, there is a tendency in modern taxation away from individual and toward social considerations. This accounts for progression or graduation in our income taxes and for the differentiation between earned and unearned increment as we find it abroad.

The lessons which the writer draws from these tendencies are that states should develop a centralized control over local revenues, that states themselves must gradually be subject to central control in taxation as they now are in interstate commerce, in the federal reserve board, and in the new trade commission; that state and local revenues should be separated through the principle of segregation of sources; that we must free ourselves from the attachment to the property tax and distinguish between personal tax and real or specific tax, and finally, that we must develop interstate comity in taxation.

M. L. Schiff, discussing some aspects of the income tax, favors this form of taxation but believes that the law could be much improved by lowering the exemptions, by abandoning the system of collection at the source and substituting the collection from the recipient and by clarifying the law so as to make it intelligible to the average person.

The general subject of state problems is introduced by an article on the relation between federal and state taxation by Professor J. E. Boyle in which he urges the need of interstate comity and of federal action in taxation of interstate corporations. "Central Control of the Valuation of Taxable Subjects" by S. T. Howe, chairman of the Kansas tax commission, gives a good outline of the organization and results of tax commissions in thirty-two states.

Twelve papers are devoted to local taxation and include contributions from Messrs. T. S. Adams, Delos F. Wilcox, Scott Nearing, R. E. George, S. M. Harrison, Edward Polak, J. J. Murphy, J. J. Pastoriza, Allen Robinson, A. D. Bernard, Adam Shortt, and W. S. U'Ren. On the whole the volume is a valuable contribution to present methods and tendencies in taxation.

KARL F. GEISER.

Oberlin College.

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PUBLIC UTILITIES—THEIR FAIR PRESENT VALUE AND RETURN. By Hammond V. Hayes, Ph.D. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company. $2.

This work contains a discussion of various theories of valuation and rate return for public utilities. It is primarily not a description of the practices of courts and commissions but an explanation of the principles which in Mr. Hayes' opinion should be adopted.

The author's viewpoint is, generally speaking, that the fair value for rate-making purposes is actual cost. Instead of reproductive, replacement, or present value, commonly used by courts and commissions he urges "actual cost." The proper valuation to be applied to new companies, established since the application of commission control, is "the investment made in good faith in the property required in the production of the service sold to the public. It might have greater value if sold, but so long as the property remains in public service its fair value for rates does not increase." Likewise, normally, it does not decrease, since any diminishing in its value is offset by proper reserves for renewals. Under the application of the author's theory, the valuation is a fixed amount, future capital expenditures are merely added to it, so that at all times, the books of the company will show the fair value of the property. For old companies, which were in existence before the application of commission regulation, the value to be taken should be ascertained not from the books, since proper accounts may not exist, but by estimating the "actual cost new, less depreciation of the property in use." Therefore, the principle is the same in either case.

The author insists that the shareholders ought not to be permitted to profit by any enhancement in the value of their property, after the investment has been made. These theories of valuation, as is well known, are in conflict with nearly all the judicial decisions and the practice of the public service commissions. It is doubtful whether this volume will convince the reader that the court and commissions are wrong.

Attention is given to the question of surplus invested in the property. Under proper regulation of new companies there will be no "excess earnings," but in the case of surplus in property accumulated by the investment of surplus earnings prior to commission regulation, the stockholders should be permitted to profit, by including such surplus in the valuation.

It cannot be said that there is any contribution made to the theories of "Fair Rate of Return" in the chapter having this title. Rather the writer confines himself to a brief restatement of the familiar principles. He believes that the opposition to commission control upon the part of investors is accounted for largely by their fear that charges may be reduced, but not increased, when necessary. The public must realize that, under the new method of control, readjustments, sometimes upwards, in rate schedules must take place. For under the old method prior to regulation, the companies usually charged a rate sufficiently high to provide for an ample surplus with which to meet contingencies, whereas under the new method of rate regulation this is impossible.

There are commendable chapters upon replacement cost, original cost, and going value, containing well stated descriptions of each of these theories of valuation. But one would naturally expect these chapters to precede, rather than to follow, the chapters containing the author's own idea of "fair present value" and "fair rate of return." There is also a valuable chapter on depreciation, in which the various methods of computing depreciation and the advantages of each are explained. These latter chapters are perhaps the most valuable portion of the volume.

Ralph E. Heilman.

University of Illinois.

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The Validity of Rate Regulations: State and Federal. By Robert P. Reeder. Philadelphia: T. and J. W. Johnson Co. $5.

The author tells us that "This book deals with the principles of constitutional law which are involved in rate regulation." It contains authoritative discussions on the commerce clause, the distribution of governmental powers, the equal protection provision, just compensation, the impairment of contracts, preferences to ports, and limitations upon federal judicial power. The footnotes are extensive and complete, and include references to the leading cases on every point discussed, and also to the leading authorities and references to books and articles. There is a complete table of cases, and a good index. As a rule, the author briefs his cases lucidly with good judgment, and states incisively the exact points settled in the cases at issue.

As is indicated by the contents included above, the book is very comprehensive and inclusive in its treatment. Thus, a number of pages are taken up with the restatement of the principles as to questions which may be brought before a court, and as to the principles that have been followed in determining whether statutes were unconstitutional. Thirty pages are given to the discussion of valuation, in which discussion the author mistakenly assumes that the test which the public service commissions have adopted and will adopt is reproduction-cost-new. The discussion of constitutional restraints is more or less superficial. The most valuable contribution made to the book is in the discussion of the due process clauses, the equal protection provision, and the impairment of contracts. The book as a whole is an excellent hand book and ready reference for all those who are interested in rate regulation, and particularly railway rates.

Clyde Lyndon King.
University of Pennsylvania.

* * *

Valuation of Public Service Corporations. Supplement, 1914. By Robert H. Whitten.

This Supplement contains the numerous court and commission decisions since the spring of 1912, the date of the issuance of the author's "Valuation of Public Service Corporations," which has easily taken the lead as the authoritative reference work on principles and methods used and applied in valuing public utilities. The Supplement follows the original work in containing complete and authoritative references to all the leading cases bearing on the points at issue. It likewise is significant because it presents the author's own point of view. Taken together, these two volumes, completely indexed as they are in the Supplement, comprise the most valuable and ready reference on valuation principles and methods available to any student.

C. L. K.

* * *

Municipal Freedom. By Oswald Ryan. With an Introduction by A. Lawrence Lowell. Doubleday, Page & Company. 1915. Pp. 233. 352 R98

Mr. Ryan's volume is one of a new series of little books designed to present to a wide reading public a number of problems of vital interest in America today. It is not a history or a description of commission government, but an inquiry into the spirit and methods of that system with a view to discovering whether or not it is a permanent device full of promise for the future (p. 5). Although the author makes no concealment of his enthusiasm for the subject of his book, he is under no delusions about "schemes" as such. Indeed, he says, on page 72, that the conditions of American politics in older days would doubtless have rendered any system partly ineffective, because the energies of the people were devoted to national politics and national interests rather than to municipal administration. The new schemes of city administration accompany, as well as help to develop, genuine public concern about efficient and responsible government.

Mr. Ryan devotes nearly one third of his book to a simple description of commission government and to its operation in Haverhill and Salt Lake City. Two chapters deal with preferential voting, and home rule. In chapter vii, non-partisan municipal politics is examined and the conclusion is reached that "despite the sweeping charter provisions against the party system, divisions of the voters on questions of municipal policy will persist," a wise caution to those who think that we are now entering upon an era of everlasting good feeling. In about thirty pages, 79–106, Mr. Ryan considers the administrative features of commission government and the city manager plan and expresses his belief that the latter scheme at last offers to the voters of the cities the longed-for expert service under proper political control.

All in all, Mr. Ryan's book is admirably adapted to the general public to which it is directed. The citizen who has given little or no attention to the recent developments in city government will find here a simple description of the commission and city manager plans and will also find here revealed the spirit and purpose of those who are most earnestly supporting these new devices of city government.

The value of the volume is enhanced by a short introduction by President Lowell who, while tempering somewhat the high hopes of the young author, concludes that "of all the plans yet tried, the one advocated in this book, that of government by a commission conducting the city departments by means of a corps of expert administrators, is the most promising."

Charles A. Beard.
Columbia University.

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Jesus and Politics: An Essay towards an Ideal. By Harold B. Shepheard, M. A. With an Introduction by Vida D. Scudder. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1, net.

This little essay analyzes, with refreshing clearness and penetrating insight, the questionings and doubts, and the hopes and visions of multitudes of earnest people, for whom the turmoil of this hour of conflict is a call to think soberly of what life means. Mr. Shepheard asserts with perfect truth that what he discusses is "not some private madness of my own but a collection of things which are 'in the air.'" His thought is not new, for much that has been written recently is along similar lines, but the restraint and beauty of his style, and the sanity of his treatment cannot fail to make an impression upon minds that have been closed perhaps to other voices. His point is that the most conscientious Christian finds himself barred from fulfilling the commands of Christ so long as he tries to fulfill them by himself; the successful effort must be a common effort. "Politics" is used here in the large sense of community activity for the common good, and in that sense the Christian has the most imperative duty to engage in politics. To the conventional objection that the church and the pulpit do more harm than good by political entanglements, the answer is that this is because association has been too often on the level of self-seeking and self-assertion, or at best, in the temper of legalism, so that so far from really representing Jesus Christ, they betrayed Him. Not so does this author understand the Christian's duty of political action. Rather, "he is led to political duty in the knowledge that it is all not so much a matter of his own gain, but that the spirit of Jesus comes as a social salvation, not of one nor a few, but of society as a whole." Only political action, he contends, "can set up the common wealth which will take away the disabilities that make poverty unholy now, and establish mercy in business and neighbor-love. The Christian has to go down with his ideal into the political fight."

If the objection be raised that all this is theoretical and utopian, the answer is made, with convincing demonstration, that this very thing is now going on before our eyes!

Mr. Shepheard's brief chapters deserve to be widely read. Christians will learn from them what their Christianity means, and politicians, what is the true purpose of politics; and all of us will catch in them an enlightening glimpse of a philosophy of life full of hope and love.

George Lynde Richardson.
Philadelphia.

⚜

The Progressive Movement. By Benjamin Parke De Witt. The Macmillan Company. 1915. xii, 376 pp. $1.50.

Mr. De Witt's book is expository rather than controversial. No doubt he is in general sympathy with the movement which he describes, but he takes no narrow partisan view of his theme. He regards the progressive ideal as one which good and wise men and women should cherish, but he does not attempt to limit it to the confines of any single party organization. He seeks rather to impress the reader with the merits of the cause, and yet he is primarily concerned with imparting information as to its meaning in terms of political and economic proposals.

The first part of the volume is historical in character—a record of the development of "progressive" ideas in the Democratic, Republican, Progressive, and Socialist parties. The second part treats of the national aspects of the progressive program: control of corporations, direct election of senators, preferential primaries, judicial control, the gateway amendment, and such social legislation as falls within the limits of federal jurisdiction. The third part is devoted to the application of the progressive idea to state government, that is to direct government in all its forms and to remedial social legislation.

That part of the volume which will be of particular interest to the readers of this review is, naturally, embraced in the chapters which deal with home rule, commission and city manager government, efficiency methods, and the newer functions of city government. All these recent tendencies, in the opinion of the author, reveal the presence of a new ideal in city politics, a determination of the people that the city shall be a clean, healthful, safe, and beautiful place in which to dwell—a determination that represents no temporary revulsion against "bad government," but a profound and abiding revolution in American civic standards.

The service which Mr. De Witt has rendered is not in unearthing new and recondite facts relative to the progressive movement or in restating its philosophy in more striking terminology than that of other writers on the subject, but in presenting a balanced and systematic account of the whole matter, which can be found nowhere else. The style is clear, and the facts are consistently marshalled. As a guide to the law, gospel, and practice of progressivism, the book will find a place in citizen's library of politics—no matter what his personal views.

Charles A. Beard.

Columbia University.

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Woman's Work in Municipalities. By Mary Ritter Beard. National Municipal League Series. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1915. $1.50.

Mrs. Beard's plan in writing this book was to give a unified and comprehensive account of the part women have taken in the work of social and civic improvement in the cities of the United States. It is gratifiying to know that she found it impossible to do this in a single volume and has had, therefore, to be content to make what is here given merely illustrative of the extent to which women have initiated movements for the extension and improvement of the public schools; for better protection of the public health; for more general and better recreation; for the control of the social evil; for better organization in the field of social service; and for political reform.

So far as possible, quotations from the women who are themselves doing the work described are used; so that the volume is in a sense a source book on this subject.

The two purposes which Mrs. Beard had in describing "Woman's Work in Municipalities" were (1) that what is being done may be an impetus to the women to do more and better work for improved city conditions; (2) that any one who still doubts women's interest and ability to help along these lines may be convinced of his error. Her marshalling of illustrations of what women in every part of the country are doing should accomplish both of these results.

The author would be the first to say that she hoped that this book would be the last as well as the first of its kind. When women are given the right, through suffrage, to work directly for better social and civic conditions, it will be even more difficult than at present, to say what has been the contribution of the women to the solution of city problems without writing our whole social and political history.

Women who have been active in civic work will be relieved when they will not be asked to stop and prove that because they are women they are not devoid of a sense of responsibility for community conditions and are not without the ability to help in determining along what lines the community life should develop. Then they will be able to devote their entire time to getting things done and will be asked to stop only for critical study as to whether any plan which is offered by man or woman is the best that can be devised for the conditions that must be met.

Grace Abbott.

Hull House, Chicago.

American Sewerage Practice. By Leonard Metcalf and Harrison P. Eddy. New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Co. Vol. I. Design of Sewers. Pp. 757; 328 illustrations. $5, net. Vol. II. Construction of Sewers. Pp. 574; 181 illustrations. $4, net.

Without question this is the most important treatise on sewerage ever published in this country. Besides the wide experience of the authors, the book embodies several years of research, correspondence and observation in order to secure the best theory and practice of others.

As may be surmised, the treatise is primarily for engineers and engineering students rather than for laymen. The first two chapters, however, are of general interest. Here the authors review the history of sewerage systems in Europe and the United States and add touches of human interest in their mention of early American engineers engaged in sewerage work. Here also is given an idea of the relation between topography and sewers and sewage disposal. Elsewhere topics of general interest are touched upon, such as the discussion of the various factors affecting the volume of sewage to be provided for, the importance of careful inspection of materials and labor entering into construction and the failure of the general public and of far too many city officials to appreciate the importance of constant watchfulness to ensure the proper upkeep and operation of sewerage systems.

Obviously, Volume II, on construction, would be more useful to most laymen than Volume I, on design. The final volume, on sewage disposal, promises to be more useful still to the layman. It is expected that Volume III will soon be ready.

M. N. Baker.

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Legal Principles of Public Health Administration. By H. B. Hemenway, M.D. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co. 900 pp. $7.50.

Community health as a public function is a novel institution, scarcely adult, as Prof. John H. Wigmore points out in his suggestive introduction to this volume. "In a time within my memory, the only law that one heard of for public health was the quarantine rule that ships coming up the bay from a plague-rumored Oriental port must lie at anchor for forty days, detaining all their passengers and crew on board. It is modern science that has vastly enlarged the scope of modern law. We have found that the scope of measure necessary for common defense calls for this enlargement of function."

Moreover it is a modern science, involving the proper adjustment of the principles and precedents of two learned professions and constantly enlarging its scope and purpose. Doctor Hemenway, who joins practical experience to academic training, approaches his task with a full appreciation of its importance and difficulties and of the necessities of interpreting each science in a way to be understood by the other. Strictly speaking, it is neither a law book, nor a medical treatise, but partakes of both. It has a value not only for the practitioners of law and medicine, but for the general student of municipal life and health.

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Hygiene for the Worker. By William H. Tolman, Ph.D., and Adelaide Wood Guthrie. (Crampton's Hygiene Series, C. Ward Crampton, M.D., General Editor.) New York: American Book Co.

The "worker" for whom this book was primarily intended appears to have been the youth of either sex entering upon or recently entered into industrial life. Except that it is harder to teach an old dog new tricks the volume is equally valuable for older workers. These conclusions are drawn from the text. The "Editor's Note" states that the book is designed for regular and special school use. From either viewpoint, the volume is sane and useful. It contains much "safety" teaching. The book was published in 1912 but is still up to date.

THE WORLD'S SOCIAL EVIL. By William Burgess. Foreword by Graham Taylor. Chicago: Saul Brothers. 1914.

One of the most hopeful signs in the war on vice is the fact of publicity. The subject is no longer protected by the "conspiracy of silence." The campaign is now being conducted in the open. For the most part, however, the struggle against this hydra-headed evil has been conducted locally and by special groups. It has lacked co-ordination. Each group engaged in aggressive effort has acted independently in its desire to secure specific results and in a degree has either overlooked, or has been in ignorance of the wider movement of which it is a part. The literature on the subject has in the main partaken of this fragmentary character. Of late, larger studies have been undertaken and specific "vice reports" have been supplemented by more general works. To the latter type belongs this present work. The author has viewed the problem as a world problem and has sought to present its wider aspects. Under such general titles as the history of regulation, the wrongs of the legalized system, the economic question, commerce and science, and the war and its weapons, he has sought to bring together in usable form the information which will serve to create a wider outlook. Current movements can be valued in their relation to the movement as a whole. For those then who wish information on the pathology and therapeutics on the wider outlook in regard to segregation problem and on the economic and commercialized phases of the subject this book will be particularly useful.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.
University of Pennsylvania.

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LETTERS WRITTEN FROM ENGLAND BY ARTHUR C. LUDINGTON. Published privately.

The family of the late Arthur C. Ludington are issuing to his friends a little volume consisting of letters which he wrote while resident in England from the opening of the war to his death in November, 1914.

The letters, so far as published, are devoted exclusively to the war and to his own intense interest therein as a dispassionate spectator who had a considerable acquaintance with public men and plenty of time and energy for intensive study of the subject. Although the letters were written with no thought of publication they have value as the product of a trained and earnest student with a thoroughly American and idealistic point of view.

Particular interest attaches to his references to the influence of Treitschke and Bernhardi among the intelligent German people with whom he came in contact during his stay in Heidelberg seven years before, and the astonishing and universal acceptance by intelligent Germans of the principles laid down by those apostles of militarism.

The final letters reveal Ludington's unfulfilled personal plans. Those who know of his activity in civic and social work in the United States will not be surprised to learn that he was unable to refrain from trying to be of service. He tried to enlist but was rejected on account of his citizenship, and finally arranged to become the driver of a Red Cross motor ambulance in northern France. He had purchased the kit required for this enterprise, including a pistol, the accidental discharge of which resulted in fatal injuries.

Friends of the author who have not received the little volume can obtain it from his brother, Charles H. Ludington, of Philadelphia.

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THE LAW AS A VOCATION. By Frederick J. Allen. Boston: The Vocation Bureau. $1.

The Vocation Bureau of Boston is doing excellent work in investigating the conditions of various professions and trades and setting forth, carefully and impartially, the facts with regard to them in a way to be useful to young people who are considering the choice of their life work. In this book prepared by Mr. Allen, the "investigator of occupations" considers the nature and present-day conditions of the practice of the law, the personal and educational entrance requirements, the dangers and disadvantages, the high demands, varied fields of service, the question of earnings and emoluments, in fact he considers whatever has a bearing upon the law as a vocation. The work is well done.

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A Model Housing Law. By Lawrence Veiller. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. $2.

This book has far wider significance than its title suggests. It is surely "canned legislation" as the author himself suggests, and constitutes a working model on which others can build, but it is much more. It is a text-book on housing and a presentation in legal form of all the principles involved in the eradication of the slums, the protection of residence districts from the invasion of factories and other commercial buildings, and a measure for housing conditions in general.

As to method, the writer has classified the material under such headings as: erection of dwellings, alterations, maintenance, improvements, etc. Accompanying these legal forms are notes and suggestions which add greatly to their lucidity and adaptability. The book is the mature product of an expert and will prove of equal value to those who seek housing reform through social legislation and to the social worker interested in other forms of social service intimately connected with the housing problem.

In its present form the volume will be mainly of service in large cities or in smaller places which are near large cities. For small cities in less densely populated districts there is need for a much shorter housing law suited to the problems of such communities.

Social Forces: A Topical Outline with Bibliographies. New Edition. Revised, Re-indexed and Enlarged. Portage, Wis.: Mrs. A. S. Quackenbush. 20 cents. 136 pp.

The education committee of the Wisconsin woman's suffrage association has done a good piece of work, a very much better piece than is usually done under such circumstances. Under each general topic there is a heading "Things to do" which is very practical. For instance, under "Municipal government," the workers are advised to learn from the present city administration the methods and achievements of their departments and to make careful study of plans for the reorganization of city administration.

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Samuel Billings Capen: His Life and Work. By Chauncey J. Hawkins. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. 1914. $1.25.

Mr. Capen was one of the useful citizens of Boston. Successful as a business man, he was active in municipal affairs (serving as the first and only president of the Boston municipal league from 1894 to 1899), in international affairs, as an active worker for international arbitration through the Mohonk conferences and in church work, as president of the Congregational missionary society. In all of these positions he was intelligent, alert, aggressive, kindly and effective. Dr. Hawkins has naturally dwelt more especially on Mr. Capen's religious activities, but he has done full justice to those qualities of Mr. Capen which made him helpful and successful in all lines of altruistic endeavor. Mr. Capen was a vice president of the National Municipal League from 1894 to 1905.

II. BOOKS RECEIVED.

AMERICAN SOCIETY OF MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENTS. Proceedings of the 1914 Convention. Indianapolis: Charles Carroll Brown, Secretary. 1915.

BANKRUPTING A GREAT CITY (THE STORY OF NEW YORK). By Henry H. Klein. Published by the Author, Tribune Building, New York City. 40 cents.

COMMERCIAL ORGANIZATIONS IN GERMANY. By Archibald J. Wolfe. Washington: Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. 1914.

COMMERCIAL ORGANIZATIONS IN SOUTHERN AND WESTERN CITIES. By George W. Doonan. Washington: Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. 1914.

THE CORRECTIONAL SYSTEM OF SPRINGFIELD, ILL. By Zenas L. Potter. New York: Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation. 25 cents.

"EFFICIENCY FIRST." Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Conference of Mayors and Other City Officials of the State of New York. 1915. $1.

EXPERIENCES IN EFFICIENCY. By Benjamin A. Franklin. New York: The Engineering Magazine Company. 1915.

THE FUTURE OF US BOYS. Edited in the Words of Grown-Ups by a Friend. Boston: Babson's Statistical Organization. 1915.

GROWTH OF AMERICAN STATE CONSTITUTIONS. From 1776 to the end of 1914. By James Quayle Dealey. Boston: Ginn & Company. $1.40.

LIVERPOOL EXHIBITION OF HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING. Transactions of Conference, 1914. Edited by S. D. Adshead and Patrick Abercrombie. Liverpool: The University Press.

A MANUAL FOR HEALTH OFFICERS. By J. Scott MacNutt, A.B., S.B. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. $3.

THE NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THE MEASUREMENT OF SOCIAL PHENOMENA. By A. L. Bowley, Sc.D. London: P. S. King & Son, Ltd. 3s. 6d. net.

PAPERS AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE MINNESOTA ACADEMY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES. Edited by J. F. Ebersole. Published by the Academy, Minneapolis, Minn. $2.

PURCHASING. By C. S. Rindfoos, C.E. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. $2.

REFUSE DISPOSAL. By Ernest R. Matthews. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. $2.

SANITATION IN PANAMA. By William Crawford Gorgas. New York: D. Appleton & Company. $2.

III. REVIEWS OF REPORTS

Vice Reports and Investigations.—*Wisconsin.* The report and recommendations of the Wisconsin Vice Committee, presented after fourteen months (and summarized in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. iii, p. 317) in the opinion of James Bronson Reynolds, counsel for the American Social Hygiene Association, Inc., pointing out as it does the vicious relations of alcoholism to vice and the attack of the Wisconsin brewers on members of the legislative commission making the report, preventing the re-election of four of them, is an important and significant fact, particularly in view of the declarations of brewers that they would not stand for any friendly relations on the part of their tradespeople with vice. Equally significant in his opinion is the report of the Richmond, Va., vice commission, issued early in 1915. This is the first careful inquiry into the subject by any community south of the Mason and Dixon line. It explicitly and formally condemns segregation, a condition still existing in cities in the south more than in any other part of our country. "The state commission in the central west and the city commission in the upper south," Mr. Reynolds declares, "both emphasize the persistence and nation-wide character of the movement for the suppression of commercialized vice in this country."

The California legislature of 1913 passed a red-light abatement act, which, however, was held up under the referendum provisions of the California constitution. The invoking of the referendum made the social evil a sharp issue in that state. This law is by no means so drastic as similar acts in force in other states, but under its provisions property employed for purposes of prostitution is rendered insecure. With the law on the statute books, the exploiters of the social evil would gain nothing by going "into politics" to protect their illegal enterprises, for every citizen is furnished with the machinery to proceed against them. This particular group of exploiters, according to Franklin Hichborn, counted upon exceptional gains during the period of the Panama-Pacific Exposition, and so proceeded to invoke the referendum against it. The law was approved by a majority vote. However, it does not seem to have been effective in checking the dangers of the situation, for with reference to moral conditions, the American social hygiene association points out, as indicative of a general laxity, that there has been an increase in the number of questionable dance halls and a failure to utilize the law designed. Moreover, immediately upon its final approval it was attacked by a series of test suits. An appeal to a higher court is still pending. Meanwhile the law has not been used and seems likely to remain unused during part or all of the exposition period.

List of Cities and States which have had Vice Investigations. Atlanta, Georgia; Baton Rouge, Louisiana; Bay City, Mich.; Boston, Mass.; Baltimore, Md.; Cleveland, Ohio; Chicago, Ill.; Denver, Colorado; Elmira, New York; Grand Rapids, Michigan; Hartford, Connecticut; Honolulu, Hawaii; Kansas City, Mo.; Lancaster, Pa. (2 reports); Lafayette, Indiana; Little Rock, Ark.; Minneapolis, Minn.; Macon, Georgia; Newark, New Jersey; New York, N. Y.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Portland, Maine; Portland, Oregon; Pittsburgh, Pa.; Richmond, Virginia; Rockland County, New York; Schenectady, N. Y.; St. Louis, Missouri; Syracuse, New York; Shreveport, Louisiana; Massachusetts, Wisconsin.

Abolition of Brothels. The following is a partial list, prepared by the International reform bureau, of cities which have (mostly within the past two years) officially abandoned the policy of regulating or tolerating brothels: Portland, Me.; Manchester, N. H.; Portsmouth, N. H.; Boston, Springfield, Worcester, Newton, Chelsea, Malden, Everett, Cambridge, Brockton, Fall River, Somerville, Mass.; Providence, R. I.; Bridgeport, Hartford, New London, Conn.; Troy, Rochester, Syracuse, Yonkers, N. Y.; Norristown, Altoona, Erie, Pa.; Wilmington, Del.; Wheeling, W. Va.; Detroit, Rockford, Ill.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Des Moines, Davenport, Iowa; Omaha, S. Omaha, Lincoln, Neb.; Kansas City (Kans.), Wichita, Kans.; Minneapolis, St. Paul, Duluth, Minn.; Seattle, Wash., Portland, (Ore.), Los Angeles, Oakland, Cal.; Austin, Tex.; Atlanta, Ga.; Huntsville, Ala.; East St. Louis, Ill.; Dayton, O.; Cleveland, O.

New York. The Society of sanitary and moral prophylaxis of New York has made a sex education survey of certain churches and of the social settlements in New York City, inquiring as to how far the clergy believe in the need for sex education; how far they feel it the duty of the church to give it; and what results have been obtained where sex education work has been undertaken by church organizations. Some such work was known to be carried on in nearly all the social settlements; its results were studied, and the attitude of club leaders observed to ascertain how far it would be possible for them to carry on the constructive work of sex ethics after the lecturer had given instruction in sex hygiene and related topics. The complete report appears in the society's *Journal*.

The Committee of Fourteen is doing a thoroughgoing work in suppressing notorious resorts and in seeking to place responsibility directly at the door of the property holders. Its annual reports are an epitome of effective work along these lines.

Cleveland. Mayor Newton D. Baker, on the initiative of the social betterment committee of the Federated churches of the city, has abolished the segregated district. A report entitled "Suppressing prostitution in Cleveland" has been published by the committee.

Dayton. There has been considerable curiosity as to how City Manager Waite would handle the social evil, so general a stumbling block of municipal administration. He proceeded cautiously, carefully studying the question and then outlined his policy to the ministerial association. He said that it was the aim of the administration to have a trained social worker make a thorough survey and to organize the system of women police officers. At the same time, and as rapidly as possible, the assignation houses would be closed up. These he designated the manufacturing plants of vice, and as infinitely more harmful than the places in the segregated district. His plan was to close the worst places first, the habitues being taken care of and prevented from continuing in business, and carefully watched by a follow-up system. The segregated district, the manager told the ministers, did not worry him nearly as much as the assignation houses.

From more than 100 inmates of houses of vice, at the beginning of 1914, there were 67 in August, and the number was constantly reduced. *The Dayton News* is authority for the statement that at one moment the situation in the conference looked stormy, when a question brought out the information that a few women with records as prostitutes were being admitted to the segregated district. Mr. Waite assured the preachers that no girls without such records were being admitted, and that more were leaving the city than were being admitted as the reduction of about 30 per cent since January 1, 1914, indicated. Two or three clergymen were inclined to view the admission of any women as wholly wrong. Mr. Waite stoutly maintained, according to the same authority, that this was a necessary procedure in order to prevent the assignation house situation from becoming worse. The assignation houses closed, then the segregated district would be attacked, he declared.

The reason the red light district was not closed at once was that its suppression "would drive trade to the manufacturing plants which are scattered through the city." Manager Waite was emphatic that the city authorities are doing everything it can do to prevent the increase of assignation business. He believed the city's policy was right and he asked for the co-operation of the ministers, and their help in taking care of the girls who were being taken from houses of ill fame.

At the conclusion of the talk, and the rapid fire questions and answers, Dr. W. A. Hale summed up the administration's policy as Mr. Waite had outlined it, and said he thought that was about all the ministers could ask. To quote the *News* again, "There were many vigorous nods of assent, and though there were some who still did not approve of a policy which would permit a single new woman to come into the segregated district, the feeling seemed to be that the association, on the whole, approved the plans which had been disclosed. Rev. Mr. Corley, head of the Bayard league, and several others, spoke in favor of them."

In reply to a note of inquiry, written shortly after this talk, City Manager Waite wrote as follows: "Dayton's recognized 'segregated' district is small, and we have decided not to touch this situation until we have worked out a disposition for the women in it. We have employed a very efficient woman who has been in probation and settlement work in Chicago for a number of years, and she is working out an idea which will, we hope, prove effective, as merely closing up the district had not been in the cities which have tried that method. We intend to make a canvass of all the stores, shops, factories, and any other place where women are employed without any special training, and put the proposition up to them as we are facing it, and find out how many positions we can provide for the women who will be thrown out of employment by closing up the district. The women will then be taken in small groups and have the situation explained to them before any strenuous action is taken, and a position with a livable wage provided for all who are willing to make another start. Naturally those who will not accept this ultimatum will be sent out of town. We are hoping great things from this, but can tell you better how it actually works out a year from now.

"While we are working out this question for the segregated district, we are in the meantime quietly closing up the scattered rooming houses, as this feature has always presented the worse evil. We are not finding this an easy task, but when we get it cleared up we will feel that we have gone a long step in the right direction.

"We have placed an absolute ban on street solicitation, and already find the condition greatly improved. It has also been our task to keep young girls off the streets at nights.

"You realize that this is not a situation which can be cleared up in a month or a year and our beginnings are very small, but as nearly as we can figure out, we are pursuing the 'safe and sane' course."

By the close of the year 1914 Manager Waite had so far progressed with his policy that he was able to say under date of December 9, 1914:

"We have had absolutely no difficulty in enforcing the order closing the houses in the segregated district. We have not only closed the segregated district, but have closed the assignation houses. Some few of the women attempted to open in other districts, but our follow-up system worked admirably, and they were immediately located, watched, raided, and closed."

Later on he wrote (under date of March 22, 1915):

"Yours of March 15th and the attached concerning the memorandum which you wrote of the social evil in Dayton.

"We proceeded on the general lines which you cover and made a careful survey of everything reported as a house of assignation by having the vice squad watch the place until we could find whether it could or could not be proven a disorderly place. In the meantime we continued to hold the situation in the segregated district under control and reduced the number of girls to about fifty, none of whom were from Dayton.

"On December 1, I ordered all the houses in the segregated district as well as the assignation houses closed. Since that time the vice squad has been watching carefully on these places as well as the street-walking situation, all of which has been watched also by the police women who report direct to me. The result of the reports is that all of these places have been closed and there has not been any scattering of the trouble, and much to my surprise and gratification street-walking has been reduced."

Chicago. Carter H. Harrison, in the last year of his mayoralty, came out in a statement which was one of the most direct and unequivocal so far issued by an American mayor on the social evil. Unfortunately he did not accompany it by one indicating how he proposed to solve the problem. In other words, he fails to answer the difficult question, "After the elimination of segregation—what then?" Nevertheless, what the mayor has to say on the question of the evil influence of the segregation policy on the police needs to be pondered by the mayors and administrators generally of our cities:

"I have reached the conclusion finally," he said, "that my ideas of the vice question have been wrong. The investigation conducted by the Rockefeller foundation in Europe has converted me. I have no hesitancy in subscribing now to the general indictment of the segregation plan. Its worst feature to me is the corrupting influence it exercises over the entire law enforcing arm of the government.

"Segregation means protected vice and you can't have protected vice without running the big risk of seeing your law-enforcing officials corrupted. The temptation seems to be great. The policeman on the beat goes to pieces very quickly after he once takes graft from the vice districts. Grafting off of these pitiable creatures is unspeakable, and at that it is but the first step in a career that sinks deeper in infamy very rapidly. The policeman who takes this kind of graft will take graft from pickpockets, thugs, gunmen and burglars.

"Chicago is through with the segregation of vice idea. Chicago, as I understand the situation, is ready to fight every kind of crime and make no exceptions. There is but one way to fight crime and that is to fight it honestly and unflinchingly and eternally."

A permanent morals commission was authorized to study the social evil, prepare recommendations concerning legislation, and act in an advisory capacity to the health and police departments. The health commissioner (Dr. John Dill Robinson) is an *ex officio* member of the commission; the other members of the commission are: Dr. Anna Dwyer, physician for the morals court; Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, Sinai Temple; Rev. W. J. M'Namee, St. Patrick's Roman Catholic Church; John Koelling, United societies.

A report on the "Control of vice conditions in European cities," was presented to the council by Aldermen Nance and Geiger, who strongly protested against the city returning to its policy of allowing houses of ill fame to operate.

The Injunction Law. A comprehensive report on the injunction and abatement law against houses of "lewdness, assignation, assignation and prostitution" was prepared for the American social hygiene association, inc., by its associate counsel, Bascom Johnson, who is of the opinion that the law affords an effective weapon against scatteration, that it is a help rather than a hindrance to the elimination of prostitution and that segregated instruments are impossible since its passage.

Growth of Prostitution. In an article in *Light*, which is the official organ of the World's purity federation, Dr. Albert E. Mowry, professor of venereal diseases in the Hospital college of medicine, Chicago, says under the heading "Increase in the social evil during the past twenty years": "I am going to give you a few observations for your consideration and cite you a few figures that are far from accurate, but still carry with them a meaning. These figures are not totals, but are meant to suggest increases or decreases in immorality in the United States. They are comparisons of conditions existing twenty years ago and the present time, and cover yearly digressions from the paths of virtue and include unmarried, married, widows and divorcees:

	Decreases	Increases
1. Betrayal	5,000	
2. Poverty	2,000	
3. Desire for jewelry, fine clothes, etc.		3,000
4. Automobiles and joy riding		5,000
5. Idleness		2,000
6. Cigarettes		1,000
7. Gambling		1,000
8. Dance halls, drinking and suggestive songs		12,000
9. Modern wearing apparel of women		5,000
10. The business girl		2,000
11. Disappointment in love		1,000
	7,000	32,000

He then takes each of the eleven items suggested and gives a brief summary of salient facts. The figures may appear extremely alarming, but a few general statements cleared the situation to some degree: "Twenty years ago the United States was poverty-stricken, so to speak. Soup houses were in great demand. Stylishly and expensively dressed women were few. Men with bank rolls were not in evidence. In other words, to sustain life was the theme supreme.

"Then follows a period of unprecedented prosperity, where, in 1895, there was one man with a yearly income of $25,000 or more, in 1910 we find fifty men with such incomes. Other incomes in proportion made people dizzy spendthrifts."

In introducing this article the editor of *Light* said: "It is generally conceded that during the past two decades, although vice districts have been eliminated and agitation has been rife, there has been a marked increase in immorality. Had it not been for the agitation and the elimination of vice districts, the increase would have undoubtedly been much greater. Dr. Mowry has attempted to diagnose the difficulty and presents the results of his research. As a physician and surgeon of high standing and one who has come in direct contact with the results of vice, his testimony is most competent. The article should furnish food for very careful thought on the part of parents, teachers and social workers."

Causes of Immorality. The Chicago morals court has been collecting data as to causes of women going astray. It has collected the history of 518 women who have been brought before it with the following results: Under the primary cause heading is the following tabulation:

Cause	No. of Women
Promise of marriage	218
Insufficient wage	108
Lack of parental restraint	50
Drinking	84
Love of dress	36
Dance halls	10
Frequent saloons	5
Drugs	4
Parks	3
Total	518

Forty-eight gave insufficient income as the secondary cause, a like number gave lack of parental restraint, 247 gave drink, 14 drugs, 84 dress, 135 dance halls and 81 frequenting saloons.

The information shows that 247 were born in a city and 271 in the country.

Wages before Downfall. The earning power of the girls before they were classed as immoral is indicated by another tabulation. This shows the number of girls who started to work at $1 or $2 a week and the weekly wage they received when they quit work and turned to the underworld. The table is as follows:

Weekly Amount	First wages for	Last wages for
$1	41	1
2	92	9
3	102	9
4	90	14
5	80	109
6	29	69
7	14	94
8	4	82
9	—	27
10	5	18
12	—	19
14	—	5
15 or more	13	14
For board	5	—
Never worked	48	48
Total	518	518

The activities of American social hygiene association, inc. (Dr. Charles W. Eliot, president) include:

I. The promotion of sex education in normal schools, colleges, and universities, with due regard to the moral and religious safeguards essential to the effectiveness of such instruction.

II. An aggressive warfare against prostitution in all its forms, especially against commercialized vice, the white slave traffic, and the discredited policy of segregation. The Association has made investigations into vice conditions in ten cities and two states and assisted with advice and co-operation in other city and state inquiries.

III. Co-operation with public health officers, physicians, and other public health agencies in a comprehensive campaign against venereal diseases.

IV. Active participation in campaigns for the enactment of such laws as have been approved by experience or have seemed wise, beneficial, and practical after a careful study of state and national legislation and of court decisions dealing with the problems with which the Association is concerned.

Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

Recent Census Publications of Interest to Students of Municipal Affairs.

I. Assessed Valuation of Property and Amounts and Rates of Levy: 1860–1912. Washington, 1915. 176 pp.

II. County and Municipal Indebtedness: 1913, 1902, and 1890; and Sinking Fund Assets: 1913. Washington, 1915. 228 pp.

III. Taxation and Revenue Systems of State and Local Government. Washington, 1914. 275 pp.

IV. County Revenues, Expenditures, and Public Properties: 1913. Washington, 1915. 338 pp.

V. Municipal Revenues and Expenditures and Public Properties: 1913. Washington, 1915. 378 pp.

VI. Telephones and Telegraphs and Municipal Electric Fire-Alarm and Police-Patrol Signaling Systems: 1912. Washington, 1915. 208 pp.

VII. Central Electric Light and Power Stations and Street and Electric Railways: 1912. Washington, 1915. 440 pp.

The census bulletins here listed will form part of the larger volume on *Wealth, Debt and Taxation* to be issued in the near future. The full report will contain statistics relating to the taxes and debt of the national government, the forty-eight states, all counties and parishes within the states, all incorporated cities, towns, villages, etc. The present statistics are issued in advance as a small part of the data to be included in the larger report. These volumes form convenient and invaluable handbooks highly useful for comparative statistical studies, since the figures cover a period of fifty-three years—from 1860 to 1913. As usual the explanatory introductions are clear and informing. The classifications used by the census bureau in these volumes are substantially the same as those employed in several of the state statistical reports, notably in those of Massachusetts and Iowa. The latter, however, contain much additional data of local value.

The first of these bulletins presents the following data in nine tables: The total and per capita assessed valuation of (1) all property and (2) all real property and improvements subject to *ad valorem* taxation, likewise the total per capita levies of taxes thereon for each of the forty-eight states and counties for the census years, 1860–1912, inclusive; the assessed valuation by states and counties of all property within certain specified civil divisions and the taxes levied thereon in 1912; and the total and per capita assessed valuation of all property within incorporated places having 2,500 population and over. An interesting fact is set forth in table 1, which shows that in 1912 the assessed valuation of all taxable property in the United States was $69,452,936,104, an amount almost double that reported in 1902. The period from 1860 to 1870, on the other hand, showed a decrease of over 5 per cent. This is the only decennial period in which a decrease occurred. Particularly notable for the decade, 1902–1912, moreover, are the increases of property valuations in Kansas and in New York. The former increased by 656.4 per cent—an actual increase of $2,383,736,661. New York, of course, had the largest absolute increase, $5,161,865,981, or a little less than 100 per cent. Table 2 reveals an increase in assessed valuation of real property and improvements for the period, 1902–1912, or more than 30 per cent in excess of the increase for the entire period from 1860 to 1902. In part one of table 5, bearing on "per capita levies of ad valorem taxes," we find the highest per capita levy in 1912, or $13.91 as compared with $9.22 in 1902, an increase of 50.9 per cent for that period. The smallest per capita levy, $4.33, reported in 1912 was from North Carolina. In part two of this table the noteworthy fact is shown that the average rate per $100 of valuation, however, was less in 1912 than in 1902, namely, $1.94 and $2.05 respectively.

The bulletin on *County and Municipal Indebtedness: 1913, 1902 and 1890; and Sinking Fund Assets: 1913* presents its statistics in two sets of tables, one set including four tables of summaries to accompany the text, and the other comprising seven tables of general statistics. In table 1 of the text we find that the minor divisions having power to incur debt reported a net indebtedness of $3,475,954,353 in 1913, as against $1,630,069,610 in 1902—an increase of $1,845,884,743, or 113.2 per cent. For the period 1890–1902, the increase amounted to $704,080,007, or 76 per cent. For the same decade the per capita net indebtedness increased from $14.79 to $20.74, or 40.2 per cent; for the period 1902–1913, the per capita increase was 72.7 per cent. While the states in the New England division show the smallest actual increase—$68,874,282, or 30.4 per cent—the Pacific division shows the largest—$220,446,527, or 406 per cent. The data in table 7, on sinking fund assets, are, as indicated in the title, for the year 1913 only. It is unfortunate that comparative figures for the earlier periods are not available.

The bulletin on *Taxation and Revenue Systems of State and Local Government* forms a digest of constitutional and statutory provisions relating to taxation in the different states for 1912. It is a revision of a similar digest for 1902. The following classification is used, so far as possible, in the compilations of the taxation and revenue laws:

I. General description, constitutional provisions, and officers.
II. Under each main division of state, county and municipal revenue come the following subdivisions:
  A. General property tax, separated into three classes:
    1. Base
    2. Rate
    3. Collection
  B. Poll tax
  C. Inheritance tax
  D. Corporation tax
  E. Business tax, licenses, fees
  F. Income tax
  G., H., etc. Other revenues

The actual public receipts and expenditures for which the laws are presented in this bulletin will be found in the two bulletins on *County and Municipal Revenues, Expenditures and Public Properties: 1913.* These bulletins present the receipts and payments for a period of one year, from July 1, 1912, to June 30, 1913. The principal data presented will be consolidated with other material pertaining to the same general investigation and will be issued with the full report. The statistics in these bulletins are really classified exhibits of the financial transactions of the counties and municipalities.

As an aid to the study of the data presented, brief definitions of the terms employed in the collection precede the tables. Owing to the defective classification in many of the reports received from county and municipal officers, it was impossible to distinguish one tax from another. In many counties and cities the returns included the poll tax along with the general property tax. The same is true of the expenditures. In a number of cases amounts which should appear under some definite classification are grouped with "general government" or with "miscellaneous and general expenditures." Many counties and cities failed to report expenses for certain departments, such as protection to person and property, schools, conservation of health, etc. Hence, the figures as a whole are slightly incomplete and until all county and municipal officials come to realize the necessity for accuracy in accounting methods, the Census authorities can do little to remedy this situation.

The two reports on electrical industries differ in some respects from the bureau's previous bulletins in this field, chiefly, however, in the fact that the general tables now follow a geographical rather than an alphabetical arrangement. The present reports cover, as a whole, five distinct surveys and resolve themselves into two separate groups: telephones, telegraphs and fire-alarm and police-patrol signal systems constitute one group; light and power stations and railways form the other. It is for this reason that the statistics are presented in two separate reports. The report on telephones is the third to be published by the census bureau; the two previous ones were issued in 1906 and 1910, respectively. The report on telegraphs is the fourth of its kind, the earlier ones covering the periods to 1879, 1902, and 1907. In the present report no financial statistics are given for companies or systems whose annual income is less than $5,000. The figures for 1907 were adjusted to bring them into comparable form with those for 1912. The figures for 1902 were found impossible to readjust for comparative purposes. The data are not wholly complete since in many cases the figures were based on estimates only, it being found that some companies did not even have books of account from which exact data could be obtained. It is to be hoped that the uniform system of accounting which became effective on January 1, 1913, under an act of congress, will aid the census bureau in its effort to achieve greater exactness in future.

The third part of this report deals with the municipal electric fire-alarm and police-patrol signaling systems and is the second report in this field to be issued by the census bureau. Its predecessor was published in 1904 and contained statistics for the year 1902. The data included are for practically all the systems operating during any part of the year 1912. The tables are preceded by a two-page history of the service throughout the United States. Especially notable in this report is the difference in location and method of controlling the police-patrol and fire-alarm signaling systems in the different cities. In later years the tendency has been to place these branches of service under the authority of some trained expert. Since the installation in Boston of the first fire-alarm telegraph in 1852, the number of such systems has grown to 1149, in 1912. The total number of electric fire-alarm and police-patrol signaling systems aggregates 1397. Of these, 71 are administered jointly by the police and fire departments. Abstracts of the important figures summarized in these reports appeared early in 1914 as bulletins no. 123 and no. 124 of the bureau.

The second report in this group, *Central Electric Light and Power Stations and Street and Electric Railways: 1912*, is divided into two parts. For the study of these statistics descriptive explanations are given in great detail, as in earlier reports on these industries. In addition to the eighteen chapters of text and 236 tables, these reports are supplemented by 43 illustrations of the various types of equipment. The present reports are the third relating to these industries to be issued by the bureau; the earlier ones covered the years 1902 and 1907.

The report on central electric light and power stations considers 5221 combined stations operated during any part of the year 1912, and includes both commercial and municipal stations. Owing to the lack of a uniform system of accounts, it was found difficult to obtain the financial statistics on a uniform basis for all the stations. The National electric light association has devised a system of accounts which it is endeavoring to have adopted by all the stations. This schedule was followed in the present report and consequently gives us a much clearer and more satisfactory conspectus than that which appeared in the previous Census bulletins on this subject.

In tables 6, 8 and 9 we find that there were 1562 municipal stations in 1912 as against 1252 in 1907 and 815 in 1902, an increase of 310; while commercial stations for the same period show an increase of only 197. In table 10 we find that it is the cities of less than 5,000 population which are more likely to have municipal plants, since they contained an actual number of 1327 in 1912, or 85 per cent of all the municipal stations. This represents a gain of 656 over the number recorded in 1902, or 97.8 per cent.

The second part of this report, on street and electric railways, is also presented in two parts, namely, statistical and technical. The report covers 1260 street railways in the United States during the year 1912 and includes those operated by cable, gasoline and animal.

Electric railway companies operated 99.7 per cent of all the trackage covered by the Census. Out of a total of 943 companies only nine reported the use of animal power exclusively, and only one uses direct steam power. Table 10 shows that electricity has now superseded all other forms of motive power for street railways. The percentage of trackage operated by electric current increased from 15.5 per cent in 1890 to 99.4 per cent in 1912.

Joseph Wright.

Some Recent State and Municipal Reports of a Statistical Nature.

I. Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics. Seventh Annual Report on the Statistics of Municipal Finances, 1912–1913. Boston, 1914. 301 pp.

II. Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics. A Sketch of its History, Organization and Functions, 1869–1915, together with a list of its publications and illustrative charts, by Charles F. Gettemy, director. Boston, 1915. 115 pp.

III. Iowa Department of Finance and Municipal Accounts. Seventh Annual Report on the Statistics of Cities and Towns of Iowa, 1913–1914. Des Moines, 1914. 272 pp.

IV. Indiana Department of Inspection and Supervision of Public Offices. Fourth Annual Report. Indianapolis, 1914. 268 pp.

V. Boston Finance Commission. Reports and Communications. Vol. x. Boston, 1915. 294 pp.

In the annual Massachusetts report on municipal statistics the system of tabulation is now well established and the present volume varies but slightly from its predecessors. In it, however, we are given for the first time a complete compilation of financial statistics for all of the cities and towns of the commonwealth, from its largest city (Boston), with a population of 686,092, to its smallest town (New Ashford), with a population of 92. No effort has ever been made in earlier reports to get data from the towns having a population of under 5,000. In many instances municipal officials failed as usual to file returns on the schedules supplied; but in each such case the bureau of statistics itself procured and classified the figures, although this was a costly procedure. The information in this report is of great value even though the figures are two years old.

The Massachusetts bureau has also issued, during the current year, a brief but instructive account of its own history, organization and work. The sketch covers the doings of nearly a half century and includes a list of all the publications issued by the bureau during that time.

The Iowa report covers 101 cities and 739 of the 758 incorporated towns of the state. The remaining 19 towns made reports to the department in such shape that their figures could not be properly tabulated. In 1913 the general assembly of Iowa amended the municipal accounting law so that the department may send examiners to delinquent cities and towns in order to secure any necessary data. By using this power it has been possible to get nearly all the desired information. The statistics in this report are wholly financial in character and are presented under fifteen different headings, seven for receipts and eight for payments. The classification is along the lines of the Massachusetts report; but, unlike the latter, the cities are listed according to population and the towns are given in alphabetical order. At the end of the report is a list of cities with, in each case, the names of the mayor, city clerk and treasurer. The general tables are preceded by brief summaries in totals and in per capita figures of receipts and payments. Some additional data relates to the nine commission-governed and the four general-manager cities of the state.

The Indiana report includes the finances of the 92 counties, 1016 townships, 478 civil cities and towns, 284 school cities and towns, and 21 state institutions for the fiscal years 1912–1913. As in previous reports the arrangement is by counties. This is a serious shortcoming. While making one step forward insofar as it was possible to collect data from nearly two thousand offices which had never previously been examined, the Indiana department still falls short of the census bureau, the Massachusetts and the Iowa reports, in the relative amount of classified data presented. The report confines itself almost entirely to amount of property owned, outstanding indebtedness, and to balances and disbursements. The tables are preceded by a short introduction giving a summary of the expenses of the department in the collection of data.

The report of the Boston finance commission, while not wholly of a statistical nature, ought to be mentioned. During the fiscal year the commission has published 47 reports or communications to the mayor, the city council, and the legislature. It has also submitted to various governmental officials or bodies 34 unpublished reports, all of which, however, are now printed in this volume.

Joseph Wright.[1]

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Bureau of Public Welfare of Cook County.—The Bureau of Public Welfare of Cook County completed on May 1, 1915, one year's work. The following from "A Study of Cook County" suggests the purpose of the organization of the bureau:

The purpose of all the expenditure of money, strength and skill in the charity service is that the misery of the community may be lessened, the health of the public safe-guarded, the earning capacity of the able-bodied conserved. If the spirit of the law is observed, it means the gradual development of a charity service able to render the aid offered in such a constructive and intelligent manner as to make it really effectual and, so far as possible, preventive of needless poverty, sickness and wretchedness. Even with the service as it has developed, the football often of political parties, the plaything for political ends, there is in the ordinary performance of duty an enormous amount of simple, humble, unrecognized devotion and kindness. The attendants at the infirmary, the nurses in the hospital, the other members of staff, give not only the service for which they are paid, often most inadequately, but genuine human sympathy. But their duties often become a routine matter, and when hundreds are cared for, it is difficult to remember always that each has his own problem of misery and need. Often the patient is reluctant to confide in the attendant or nurse with whom he comes in frequent contact. The necessity of devising ways of discovery when these special services should be offered has, therefore, been apparent to many who are concerned with the more efficient administration of the county charity service.

Moreover, the same necessity which has arisen in the county hospital and in the county court for supplementing the ordinary machinery of the institution by the creation of a social service department has been recognized in connection with Oak Forest, the jail and various institutions for children. Therefore, in 1914 the bureau of public welfare was created to render such services as these in connection with the institutions named.

The bureau as organized comprised a director and six welfare workers and clerical assistants. The welfare workers were detailed for work in the county jail, the infirmary and tuberculosis hospital at Oak Forest and the children's institutions.

At the expiration of the county's last fiscal year, December 1, 1914, the bureau submitted a report of its work comprising some 10,000 words and illustrated with five photographs, twenty-six statistical tables and eight charts.

A portion of this report showing the financial saving possible in this work was printed in the proceedings of the county board. This statement described the circumstances of each patient or ward removed from county support and showed that the service rendered these unfortunates at an expenditure of some $5,000 had affected an annual saving of approximately $14,000 to the county.

With the opening of the present fiscal year (December 1, 1914) the bureau was given independent existence, and its title changed to that of "Department of Public Welfare." However, its activities were curtailed by the removal of two of its welfare workers formerly detailed for work at the infirmary and tuberculosis hospital. A committee of citizens has since raised the money necessary to continue the Oak Forest work and the reestablishment of the work depends now upon acceptance by the county board of the free service offered.

The work conducted at the Oak Forest and the children's institutions was analagous to the reinvestigations which are required by law in New York state. The principle of this reinvestigation is sound, recognizing as it does the continual change in individual and family circumstances and the recurring possibility of re-assimilating these dependents into the normal life of the community.

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[1] Librarian, Bureau for Research in Municipal Government, Harvard University.

The work in the county jail has been practically an extending of the juvenile court idea to the juvenile adults (boys between 17 and 21 years of age) who have committed felonies and are held awaiting trial in the county jail.

The 1915 report of the Chicago bar association concludes a review of this service in the county jail with the statement:

This work is extremely important and the bar association should be interested in a further extension of it.

Every boy between the ages of 17 and 21 held in the county jail, is interviewed by a young woman from this department. The facts she gathers are made a basis of investigation and by the time the young man comes to trial, a volume of verified facts concerning what kind of a man he is, what actual work record he has, what his family is and what elements exist in his home which would aid him in living an honest life, is submitted to the judge.

The public welfare workers consider themselves neither as prosecutors nor defenders, but are engaged in a disinterested effort to present the facts and truth about these boys to the trial judge, and also to render any service possible to the boys and their families.

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New York's New Code of Ordinances.—The board of aldermen elected in the fusion campaign of 1913 undertook to reform its own organization and to develop some of its long neglected functions. A new codification of the general ordinances of the city, which has been issued, is one of the most important accomplishments of the first year and a half of its term. Although the charter of Greater New York makes it mandatory for the board to codify and publish annually the general ordinances of the city, this has not been done for ten years. Ordinances have been passed year after year without any effort being made to relate them to existing ordinances, or to repeal those superseded. The phraseology was often involved and unintelligible, so that the general ordinances had become an enigma to laymen, lawyer, and magistrate. Attempted codifications in 1906 and 1908 failed. In 1909 the board of city magistrates urged the appointment of a commission to take up the work, but nothing was done until the fusion board took up the subject early in 1914.

A codification committee, assisted by Alexander C. MacNulty, assistant corporation counsel, presented a preliminary draft in the summer of 1914. In the discussion and criticism of this draft, the citizens' union took a prominent part. The new code was finally passed, and signed by the mayor on March 30, 1915.

The sanitary code, revised by the board of health, and also a revision of the park and dock codes, have been included in the general codification. The department of water supply, gas and electricity prepared an electric code, the first one which the city has had, although such a code has been needed for years. The fire department prepared a new explosives code, and these also were adopted by the board and included in the general code.

In form the new code has been moulded on the lines of the consolidated laws of the state. The material has all been classified by subjects instead of by departments, and divided into chapters arranged in alphabetical order.

Although published in the *City Record* of April 3, final publication of the code was delayed, in order to include all amendments up to July 6. This delay made it possible to incorporate a revision of the most important sections of the building code. This revision of the building code is, in itself, one of the notable achievements of the present board of aldermen. Repeated efforts during the last ten years to pass a new building code as a single ordinance failed because of the combined opposition of a variety of interests. The present board has achieved a successful result by adopting a plan of revision section by section. One article after another has been introduced as a separate ordinance.

By July 6, 1915, 16 out of the 31 articles within the jurisdiction of the board, had been passed and approved by the mayor. The other fifteen, which are of less importance, are to be taken up in September. The sixteen articles which have been adopted, cover the following subjects: Materials, working stresses and loads, classification of buildings, restricted areas, partition fences and walls, excavations and foundations, masonry construction, wood construction, iron and steel construction, reinforced concrete construction, fireproof construction, motion picture theatres, plumbing and other systems of piping, altering, changing or demolishing buildings, unsafe buildings and collapsed structures, and enforcement of chapter.

The present fusion board of aldermen has been highly praised in a report issued by the aldermanic committee of the Citizens' union for its general efficiency and especially for its business-like and efficient work in giving the city, for the first time, an intelligible and up-to-date code of ordinances.

C. C. Williamson.

◆

Occupational Diseases and Health.—After reading the eighth report of the Henry Phipps institute for the study, treatment and prevention of tuberculosis on factors affecting the health of garment workers by H. R. M. Landis, M.D., director of the clinical and sociological departments and Janice S. Reed, research assistant in sociology,[1] one is inclined to doubt if there is such a thing as an occupational disease. Disease in occupations? Yes; but not because of peculiar requirements of the special occupation. The statement of a recent writer in the *American Journal of Public Health* is quoted to the effect that "industrial disease is a misleading term, used for convenience only, or through ignorance, to indicate certain pathological states, the result of insanitation in industry. Industry itself is never necessarily unwholesome. Industrial processes, it is true, are objectionable and crude, oftentimes, but bad industrial conditions are always remediable."

The points mentioned in the following table certainly have no peculiar connection with garment-making factories. They might exist in any factory and they might be remedied in any factory.

422 Defects in Forty-Three Factories

Defects	No. of factories	No. of workers	Per cent of total workers
No fire escape provision	20	480	22.2
Serious fire risk.......	41	2062	94.9
No fire drills.........	39	1221	56.1
No emergency provisions..............	30	1515	69.6
Insufficient lighting ...	1	40	1.8
Bad ventilation.......	19	800	36.8
Inadequate water supply	4	147	7.5
No wash rooms.......	39	1313	64.2
No dressing rooms	34	771	35.5
No lunch rooms.......	42	2013	97.3
Unsanitary toilets.....	34	877	40.3
No separation for sexes' toilets............	8	130	6.4
Toilets, bad light and ventilation.........	23	534	24.6
Toilets not clean......	34	705	32.5
Waste receptacles not furnished.........	20	302	13.9
No cuspidors.........	41	1123	51.6
Machinery dangerous..	2	80	3.6

Under the head of recommendations attention is called to the fact that the healthiest body of workers in the United States is probably to be found in the army and navy. The surgeon-general of the navy is quoted as saying in 1912, "We have been looking after occupational diseases in the navy, but entirely on the basis of military efficiency. There is no humanitarian factor in it." Very pertinently, the question is asked, "Why should not a manufacturer look after the health of his employes entirely on the basis of industrial efficiency?"

It is suggested, that an inquiry be made concerning the effects of industry on health, that, for the best results such an inquiry—industry by industry—should be undertaken by the state department of health conjointly with the state department of labor as an integral part of its administrative program. For the proper study of the effect of occupation on health each state should have an adequate body of field workers and trained physicians whose supervising authority in the interest of the entire community should be the central health authority of the state—the State Board of Health."

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[1] Published by the Henry Phipps institute, Philadelphia, 1915.

Nearly 1,000 workers were examined, 743 of them intensively, but ill health, when present, was thought to be the result of many factors not traceable to the garment-making trade. Unsanitary conditions in factories and homes bear an important relation to ill health. The writers of the report believe that more authoritative data must be secured to establish the relation between the hygiene of occupation and the hygiene of the community.

Harlean James.

⁂

Report of the Pittsburgh Art Commission.—The volume contains a brief account of the activities of local civic bodies previous to the creation of the art commission; the act of assembly creating the commission; an account of the commission's work since its appointment together with an explanation of its methods of considering submissions; a history of the agitation for the improvement of the Point district; and a copy of the E. H. Bennett report and drawings which the Commission has recommended to the city council for adoption.

A list of submissions to the commission is also included with a note of the action upon each. A brief note is made of the cost to the city of maintaining the commission, the members of which serve the city without pay, and it is stated that this cost amounts to about one eighth of one per cent of the cost of the structures acted upon by it.

However, it would appear that this statement does not represent the correct relation of the commission or its full value to the community inasmuch as it has undertaken a campaign of public education by illustrated lectures upon civic art—the value of which cannot be measured in dollars and cents nor even estimated until the future. This latter would seem to be a thankless undertaking, being a work which brings results only after much waiting.

Pittsburgh has reason to feel proud of the progress of the work of a commission which is still young, and which compares favorably with that of the New York City art commission. That commission has been in existence for sixteen years and has attained an enviable place for itself in its own city and throughout the country. It may well be that the Pittsburgh commission will achieve a like result.

The report contains a number of interesting illustrations showing improvement in design under its direction. One view accompanies an indirect plea in the text for foresight by the city in protecting its public structures against private encroachment. An excellent frontispiece shows the accepted design for the Schenley memorial fountain.

⁂

New York Police Bulletin.—*The Police Bulletin*, an eight-page monthly periodical established by Police Commissioner Woods of New York, to keep the members of the uniformed force informed and instructed, appears to fill admirably a long felt want in the realm of police education. Each issue contains as an editorial a well-written lecture on a subject of timely interest in the field of law enforcement. The remainder of the bulletin which is written in colloquial English with many quotations in the technical language used by policemen contains accounts of especially good police work, answers to questions, suggestions made by policemen, comments of the station house lawyer and news items of interest to the members of the policemen's families. It is edited by the commanding officer of the training school who is not only a policeman of extended practical experience, but also an exceptionally able teacher and a man of distinctly more than average literary ability.

⁂

The Annual Report of New York Fire Department[1] for 1914 fulfills in every respect the requirements of an ideal municipal report. It is a readable and instructive pamphlet of 162 pages containing an interesting account of the principal activities of each bureau of the department for the information and education of the citizens. The illustrations possess very distinct educational value; the statistical tables are elucidated by readily understandable statistical charts and as each chapter of the report has been written by the bureau chief in direct charge of the matter covered by that section, the report is enriched by a variety of style and by expertness of exposition. The chapters relating to fire prevention and incendiarism are especially worthy of careful reading. Much of the material in these chapters is presented in the form of illustrations which serve to elucidate the text in the case of literate citizens and which make a direct and effective appeal to illiterate citizens.

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[1] From Dr. Leonhard Felix Fuld, New York.

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Fire Prevention Lessons.—The New York fire department has issued a thirty-page illustrated pamphlet entitled "Fire Prevention Lessons" compiled by William B. Northrop, a special investigator of that department. Although objections may be made on pedagogical principles to the catechetical form in which this material is presented, the pamphlet covers the field of fire prevention for purposes of school work in a most thorough and interesting manner and the photographs in the book are especially instructive. Much practical benefit will undoubtedly result from the study of these lessons by the school children.

*

Outrement Signal System.—The City of Outrement, Quebec, Canada, has recently installed a police and fire signal system, which is unsurpassed by any American city. The fire alarm system consists of twenty-seven positive non-interfering succession keyless bell-less boxes and the police signal system consists of thirteen boxes equipped with wagon, duty and telephone signals and with a green flashlight and a large vibrating gong.

*

Annual Report of Bureau of Buildings.—The annual report of the bureau of buildings of the Borough of Manhattan for the year 1914 gives a clear exposition of the bureau's activities in increasing the efficiency of its employes in the performance of emergency work, in the legal prosecution of violations of the law, in the effective supervision of its inspection service, and in its rigorous prosecution of unlicensed plumbers. The report is profusely illustrated and its statistics are readily understandable by the layman. It is worthy of careful study by all who are professionally interested in public safety administration, and will be found of considerable interest by all who care for efficient municipal administration.

*

The Government of the City of New York.—This volume prepared by the New York State constitutional convention commission contains the addresses presented to a series of conferences held under the auspices of the Academy of political science of New York in co-operation with the Bureau of municipal research, the Institute of arts and sciences of Columbia university, and a citizens committee. The addresses are carefully prepared statements, usually by those in authority, and the discussions were participated in by those who were equipped by practical experience and academic knowledge to bring out the important points. It is a most helpful volume.

*

Municipal Year Book of the City of New York, 1915.—This volume, which was prepared under the direction of the city comptroller, Henry Bruere, by the Municipal reference library (Dr. C. C. Williamson, librarian), is one of the most interesting of year books and differs from nearly all others in the emphasis placed upon descriptive matters and in the relegation of statistics to a minor place. This particular volume together with the report on the government of the city of New York noted above, gives us a comprehensive survey of the truly enormous activities of New York City.

*

A Model Health Code for Texas Cities.—By Robert M. Jameson. Bulletin No. 23 of the University of Texas, April 20, 1915. Mr. Jameson is secretary of the Bureau of municipal research and reference, and this publication is No. 8 of the municipal research series. The ordinances "are not presumed to be in the least the last word on the subject. They are intended as concrete suggestions to the cities of Texas. . . . " They "have been collected from far and wide, and represent the thought of many minds." The suggestions will be found useful in many cities outside the bounds of Texas. The effort to assist municipalities in the important task of conserving the public health is a timely and valuable one. Ordinances are suggested covering powers and duties of health officers,—care and production of milk, meats, bakeries, foods and food production, drugs, sewage, animals, stables, laundries, garbage, burials, etc., etc. A valuable feature is an appendix of ten pages of bibliography, together with samples of score cards for recording the results of inspections and investigations.

⁂

Rapid Transit in Philadelphia.—*Statement of A. Merritt Taylor, Director of the Department of City Transit, City of Philadelphia.* Submitted to the Public Service Commission of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania at Harrisburg, July 26, 1915, in support of the application of Philadelphia for certificates of public convenience with relation to the construction by the city of certain subway and elevated railway structures. 15 pp.

This pamphlet is a succinct and readable account of the effort being made under the Blankenburg administration to solve the transportation problem in Philadelphia. It presents a summary of recent legislation empowering Philadelphia to establish adequate transportation facilities, a survey of the financial capacity of the city to undertake the work proposed and an outline of the investigations and proposals of the transit commissioner. The outline includes data on population, traffic lines and traffic characteristics, construction and operating costs, savings to be effected in time spent in travel, social and economic benefits, facilities for high speed travel, necessity for public aid, and advantages of early action on the part of the state commission and the city. There are citations to appendices which "are too voluminous for publication."

⁂

Philadelphia Sewage Report.—A comprehensive report on the collection and treatment of the sewage of Philadelphia has been made by George S. Webster, chief engineer of the bureau of surveys, assisted by George E. Datesman and W. L. Stevenson. The report is the result of several years of study of not only local needs, but also of sewage-disposal practice in American and foreign cities. The information given on the leading methods of sewage treatment now in use is valuable. The main object of the report is to present recommendations for a comprehensive plan of sewage disposal for Philadelphia, in place of present lack of plan. The recommendations made are for the construction of main collecting or intercepting sewers leading to three sites, located in different parts of the city. At the outset, coarse screens, grit chambers, and Imhoff or two-story sedimentation tanks would be built at two of the sites, but the works would be so designed that later on, as population increased, oxidation could be secured by means of sprinkling filters or otherwise. At the third site, similar clarification works are advised, except that in place of Imhoff tanks fine screens would be provided. The estimated cost of collecting sewers, pumping stations and treatment works, as outlined, is $22,400,000, and for the farther treatment required later and up to 1950, $12,000,000 more; but it is expected that the expenditure of the $22,400,000 would be distributed over a considerable period. A significant feature of the plan recommended is that only partial treatment is contemplated, the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers being relied upon to dispose of the sewage by dilution and natural oxidation after some of the solid matters have been removed. This accords with present-day practice where large volumes of water not used for public supply are available.

⁂

Civil Service Notes.—*Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the National Civil Serv-*

ice Reform League held at Chicago, December 3 and 4, 1914, with the reports and papers read and other matters.

This volume will be of service to those who are interested in civil service reform. There are some pages of particular interest to the student of municipal government, especially the address on "Some essential features of a model civil service law" by George T. Keyes, Secretary of the National civil service reform league, and the discussion following it (pp. 169–193). One criticism of the publication is that it has a very poor table of contents and no index. If the addition of an index is not feasible, a much more complete and illuminating table of contents would add appreciably to the usefulness of the material it contains. For example, Miss Jane Addams gave a very interesting address on "The humanitarian aspects of the merit system." The table of contents gives no hint whatever of her theme.

Twentieth Annual Report, Civil Service Commission. City of Chicago, Year 1914.

This publication contains a copy of the civil service act, the civil service rules, and both classified and alphabetical lists of the positions under civil service. Comment is wanting, no effort being made to make comparisons with previous years or to present any conclusions based on the operation of the commission in 1914.

Russell M. Story.

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Proceedings of the Joint Conventions of the American Association of Commercial Executives and the Central Association of Commercial Executives and the Organization of the National Association of Commercial Organizations Secretaries. 276 pp. —The local business bodies generally are feeling the need of merging their interests, and in city after city we find one strong body superseding and merging a congeries of smaller, and less effective ones, and now the secretaries of these bodies have reinforced and nationalized the tendency.

The meetings held in Cincinnati in September, 1914, constitute a long step forward and establish another precedent of substantial importance. Practically every one interested in public affairs is conscious of the fact that we are overorganized, and those groups of men who appreciate this fact and take steps to overcome the tendency are entitled to a special meed of merit.

The new organization has entered on its new career under the leadership of Secretary S. Christy Mead, of the Merchants' association of New York, as president, and Secretary J. A. McKibben, of the Boston chamber of commerce, as secretary.

Over and above the full record of the merging of the two bodies, the present volume contains an abundance of material of interest and value to municipal workers generally. Among the subjects considered were the democracy of the business club, commercial organizations and civic affairs, what education is doing for secretarial efficiency and advertising cities.

*

City Charters and General Laws.—The charter of the city of Richmond, Va. (first enacted in 1870), has recently been republished, with revisions to January 1, 1915. It is well indexed, both page and section references being given. The charter committee of a local civic asssociation has begun a study of this charter with a view to its revision.

*

Charter of the City and County of Denver.—*Framed by the Second Charter Convention, February 6, 1904, adopted by vote of the people, March 29, 1904, and all amendments thereof to and including February 17, 1914. Containing also Article XX of the Constitution of the state of Colorado with amendment to section six thereof.* Published by authority of the council of the city and county of Denver. A well prepared and thoroughly indexed volume that will be appreciated by any student of municipal government in Denver.

*

Code of Franchises.—*Published by Direction of the Council of the City of Cincinnati*, by Arthur Espy, City Clerk. Contains the codification of the franchises and general ordinances relating to street railroads, interurban railroads and lighting companies. A volume that was published in recognition of the fact that before American cities can intelligently meet their public utility problems they must first ascertain the existing status of the utilities. This is the first step Cincinnati has taken, the code making a volume of 440 closely printed pages. It is fairly well indexed.

✠

A Digest of Police Cases.—Lieutenant Hannon, chief of the bureau of disciplinary records of the New York police department, has prepared for the use of the commissioner a digest of all New York court decisions affecting the discipline of policemen.

✠

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Citizens Union of the City of New York. An analysis and criticism of the home rule amendment proposed by the Committee on Cities submitted to the constitutional convention of 1915. 14 pp.

——. New York. A brief for municipal home rule and digest of proposals submitted to the Constitutional Convention of 1915. 37 pp.

Robinson, Allan. Home rule and municipal expenditures. (Real Estate Magazine, August, 1915, pp. 35–37.)

Mr. Robinson is president of the Allied Real Estate Interests. The article concerns the home rule proposals before the New York State Constitutional Convention.

Municipal Research Bureaus

Toronto

Toronto, Ont. Bureau of Municipal Research. Annual report (1) for the year ending February 28, 1915. 16 pp.

New York City

This bureau, in co-operation with city departments, has recently presented two elaborate volumes to the New York State Constitutional Convention. They are entered in this Bibliography under Finance and Municipal Government, respectively.

Municipal Trading

Simpson, J. Legal powers of cities in municipal trading. (Municipal Engineering, July, 1915, pp. 26–27.)

Ice plants, plumbing, brick building, quarries, supplying electrical fixtures, selling fuel, maintaining moving picture theatres, dealing in real estate, selling liquor.

Webb (Sidney and Beatrice). Can industry be organized by the national or municipal government? 32 pp. f°. (The New Statesman. State and municipal enterprise. Special supplement. May 8, 1915.)

This issue constitutes part iii of the draft report of the Committee on the Control of Industry of the Fabian Research Department. Drafts of parts 1 and 2, resp., which were published as supplements to the February 14, 1914, and May 20, 1914, numbers of The New Statesman did not concern the subject matter of this Bibliography. The present draft is given as submitted by Sidney and Beatrice Webb, except for the omission of part of chapter ii and of many of the bibliographical and other footnotes.

Pageants

Craig, Anne Throop. The poetic theme in the modern pageant. (Forum, September, 1915, pp. 348–355.)

University of Nebraska. The pageant of Lincoln. Presented by the Lincoln Commercial Club and the Alumni Association of the University of Nebraska, June 4 and 5, 1915. 35 leaves. 8°.

Parks

Comey, Arthur C. Graphic presentation of park service. (Landscape Architecture, July, 1915, pp. 185–187.)

Pensions

Anon. The insolvency of the municipal pension funds of New York City. (Economic World, August 14, 1915, p. 209.)

Burn, Joseph and Frank P. Symmons. Practical points in connection with the formation and valuation of pension funds. (Journal Institute of Actuaries, July, 1915, pp. 193–254.)

Piers

Anon. Chicago municipal pier. 3600 words. illus. (Engineering News, July 29, 1915.)

Pier for freight and passenger service. Accommodations for recreation space and auditorium. Criticisms on design and construction.

Police

Baker, Newton D. Law, police and social problems. (Atlantic Monthly, July, 1915, pp. 12–20.)

Statement of some of the difficulties of the police problem under American theory and practice.

Whitman, John L. Jails, lockups and police stations. (Journ. Amer. Institute of Criminal Law, etc., July, 1915, pp. 240–248.)

Constitutes the report of a Special Committee on Jails, Lockups and Police Stations appointed at the last session of the American Prison Congress.

Port Development

Black, W. M. Relative duties of federal and of state or municipal officials in port development. (Professional memoirs, Corps of Engineers, U. S. A., July–August, 1915, pp. 424–432.)

Colonel Black is of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. A.

Booker, Roy G. Making Charleston a great coal port. (Manufacturers' Record, July 22, 1915, pp. 42–43.)

California. Department of Engineering. Biennial report (4) for the period ending November 30, 1914. 1914. 285 pp. illus.

Includes, on pp. 36–48, a valuable illustrated report of the work executed on the San Francisco harbor front. This property belongs to the state and the administration of it is vested in a Board of State Harbor Commissioners. The engineering and construction work is vested in the Department of Engineering which assigns one assistant state engineer and one engineering draughtsman to the Board of State Harbor Commissioners. The designs, shown in the above report, for the group of buildings abutting on the harbor front are very attractive and augur for San Francisco an exception from the usually dingy aspect of American harbor fronts.

New York City. Committee on Port and Terminal Facilities. Report of the secretary on the activities of the committee July 12, 1914 to date. June 15, 1915. 61 pp.

The need of making provision for New York's future commerce if the city is to hold that commerce is set before the Board of Estimate in this report.

Messrs. Stevens, Loree and Swain have estimated that the work may take two years and cost $125,000 a year. The port and terminal committee asks that the undertaking be immediately approved by the Board of Estimate, at an expense of not more than $125,000 a year.

Sheldon, Paul H. Houston now ready for the ships of the world. (Manufacturers Record, July 1, 1915, p. 51.)

Mr. Sheldon is secretary of the Houston civil service commission. He writes of the completion of the ship channel from Houston to the sea and of the municipally owned wharves.

Public Health

Evans, Dr. W. A. Municipal health officers and venereal disease. (American Journal of Public Health, September, 1915, pp. 884–900.)

Doctor Evans is health editor of the Chicago Tribune.

Fox, Carroll. Public health administration in Toledo. June, 1915. (U. S. Public Health Service. Public Health Reports, 1915, no. 26, pp. 1873–1932.)

——. Same. (U. S. Public Health Service. Reprint no. 284.)

Jameson, Robert M. Model health code for Texas cities. 1915. 95 pp. (Bulletin of University of Texas, no. 23. Municipal Research series no. 8.)

New York City. Health Department. Rules for all employes. 1915. 59 pp. 12°.

Public Utilities

Accounting

Clothier, C. C. Accounting systems for municipal water works. 1500 words. (Fire and Water Engineering, July 7, 1915.)

Gives outline of system and heads under which expenditures and receipts may be classified. Mr. Clothier is commissioner of public utilities, Guthrie, Okla.

Light and Power Cos.

Dickerman, J. C. Comparison of electric light and power rates. 5000 words. (Power, July 6, 1915.)

The rates for different classes of service from residence lighting to the wholesale consumer, in American cities, are compared by means of charts.

Lindemann, Hugo. Die Verstadtlichung der Berliner Elektrizitätswerke. (Kommunale Praxis, May 22, 1915, C. 335–340; May 29, C. 352–356; June 5, C. 368–372; June 12, C. 384–388.)

Circumstances surrounding the municipalization of Berlin's electricity plant, authorized by the City Council in the course of its session of April 8, 1915.

Massachusetts. Board of Gas and Electric Light Commissioners. New legislation of especial interest to gas, electric and water companies and municipalities owning lighting plants. 1915. 61 pp.

Traction Cos.

Anon. Seattle's traction muddle. (Electric Traction, August, 1915, pp. 460–462.)

Account of the contentions between the City of Seattle and the Puget Sound Traction, Light and Power Co. The latter is the chief operator of traction lines in the Puget Sound country.

——. Superior Avenue operating station, Cleveland Railway Co. (Electric Traction, August, 1915, pp. 429–432. illus.)

Siméon, J. Die Strassenbahnverkehrsmittel auf der Werkbundausstellung in Cöln 1914. (Zeitschrift für Kleinbahnen, May, 1915, pp. 297–308. illus.)

Mr. Siméon is Director of Street Railways in Aix-la-Chapelle.

Taylor, A. Merritt. Statement submitted to the Public Service Commission of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, July 26, 1915, in support of application of the City of Philadelphia for a certificate of public convenience with relation to the construction by the city of certain subway and elevated railway structures. 15 pp.

Wilcox, Delos F. Report in relation to the Queens County Water Co. June 1, 1915. 181 pp. maps. 8°.

The investigation which forms the subject-matter of this report originated in a private complaint relative to rates charged by the Queens Co. Water Co. Ultimately the inquiry developed into negotiations with the company with a view of acquiring for the City of New York such of its property as might be useful to the city. The report is made to the Department of Water Supply, Gas and Electricity of New York City.

Valuation

Gillette, H. P. Valuation of water works properties. 8500 words. (Engineering and Contracting, July 7, 1915.)

The third in a series of articles. This one covers appraisal of overhead costs.

Water Works

Loomis, E. L. Water works at Valparaiso, Ind. 3500 words. 7 illus. (Municipal Engineering, July, 1915.)

Complete description of the plant and of the development of the water company. Mr. Loomis is superintendent of the works.

Public Works

Beverly, Mass. Department of Public Works. Annual report (1), for 1914. 1915. 99 pp.

This department was created by ordinance of March 9, 1914. It consists of the following divisions: Street, Bridges, Sewer, Water, Park, Playground and Forestry.

Recreation

See also under Public Works

Newark, N. J. City Plan Commission. A public recreation system for Newark. 1915. 31 (1) pp. 2 leaves.

Nichols, David W. Recreation features of the Hartford parks. (American City, August, 1915, pp. 101–104.)

Refuse Disposal

Anon. The disposal of refuse. (Local Government Review, July, 1915, pp. 167–170.)

Review of returns to a questionnaire sent by the British Local Government Board to the urban districts of London and Wales relative to arrangements for the storage, removal, and disposal of house refuse.

——. Garbage collection studies in Chicago. 2000 words. illus. (Engineering Record, July 10, 1915.)

Continued use of horses found justifiable. Data assembled for gasoline and electric trucks show that adoption of latter is warranted only for hauling after horse drawn carts have done the collecting.

——. New methods of odor elimination at garbage plants indicated by New York tests. 3000 words. (Engineering Record, July 3, 1915.)

——. Reduction of New York's garbage. 2500 words. illus. (Municipal Journal, July 8, 1915.)

Largest garbage reduction plant in the world. Devices for preventing odors.

——. Seattle's refuse destructors. 1500 words. (Municipal Journal, July 8, 1915.)

Reasons for dumping; one of them in favor of dumping on tidal flats. Importance of collection.

Conant, E. R. Refuse disposal in southern cities with particular reference to Savannah, Ga., and its new incinerator. (American Journal of Public Health, September, 1915, pp. 904–917.)

Mr. Conant is chief engineer of Savannah. The paper closes with a tabulation of the methods of disposal in 29 southern cities.

Greeley, Samuel A. Experiences with refuse collection and disposal with reference to odors. (American Journal of Public Health, September, 1915, pp. 835–837.)

Hansen, Paul. Present practice relating to city wastes collection and disposal. (Illinois Health News, June, 1915, pp. 85–93.)

Nübling, R. Klärschlammverarbeitung und Müllverbrennung in Verbindung mit Gaswerken. (Gesundheits-Ingenieur, May 29, 1915, pp. 253–258.)

Osborn, Irwin S. Elimination of odors, Barren Island disposal plants. Report to Committee on Street Cleaning, Board of Estimate and Apportionment, New York City. April 26, 1915. 68 pp.

Schools

Kansas City, Mo. Board of Directors of the School District. Statistical information regarding the city and the public school system. 1915. Illustrated folder.

Smoke Abatement

Henderson, J. W. Reducing smoke in Pittsburgh. 1500 words. 6 illus. (Power, August 3, 1915.)

Mr. Henderson is chief of the Pittsburgh Bureau of Smoke Regulations. Pittsburgh has recently made several changes in its smoke ordinances.

Sewerage

König, J., and Lacour, H. Die Reinigung städtischer Abwässer in Deutschland nach den natürlichen biologischen Verfahren. With bibliography. (Landwirtschaftliche Jahrbücher. Bd. 47, pp. 477–572.)

Streets

Anon. Ornamental street lighting. (American Municipalities, August, 1915, pp. 137–140.)

——. Philadelphia street cleaning by contract. 1400 words. (Engineering News, July 1, 1915.)

Abstract of important specifications clauses.

Durham, Henry Welles. Some problems of street paving in large cities. (Municipal Engineers Journal, May, 1915, pp. 35, 75. illus.)

Lyman, Harold W. The streets of Walla Walla. (Pacific Municipalities. July, 1915, pp. 290–292.)

Maban, H. E. and H. E. Butler. Ornamental street lighting systems compared. 1200 words. 4 illus. (Electrical World, July 24, 1915.)

Relative advantages of the single unit and the cluster analyzed from the architectural and the engineering standpoint.

Paxton, Edward T. Street paving in Texas. May, 1915. 23 pp.

University of Texas bulletin no. 26. Municipal research. Series 9.

Portland, Ore. Chamber of Commerce. Paving report of committee to whom was referred the matter of the public contracts which will be let relative to the bond issue recently passed for good roads. (Building and Engineering News, July 7, 1915, pp. 6–20.)

——. Same, in part. (Pacific Municipalities, July, 1915, pp. 293–309.)

Shaw, C. H. Street lighting at Sheboygan, Wis. 1700 words. illus. (Lighting Journal, July, 1915.)

Taxation

Anon. Houston plan of taxation unconstitutional. (Real Estate Magazine, June, 1915, pp. 41–48.)

New York City. Finance Department. Report on the apportionment of state and county taxes. Together with suggested legislation for securing uniformity and equality in the assessment of real property. July, 1915. 39 pp.

Shortt, Adam. Municipal taxation in relation to speculative land values. (Canadian Municipal Journal, July, 1915, pp. 243–245.)

Wilcox, Delos F. Taxation of public utilities. (American Municipalities, August, 1915, pp. 147–150.)

Ticket Brokerage Regulation

Chicago, Ill., Public Library. Municipal Reference Library. Speculation or scalping in amusement tickets. Analysis of municipal ordinances prohibiting or regulating the sale of tickets at advanced prices. May, 1915. 20 pp.

Its bulletin no. 5. Address 1005 City Hall, Chicago.

Traffic

Davis, Ernest L. Reciprocal duty of automobile operator and pedestrian. (Case and Comment, August, 1915, pp. 185–191.)

Nuese. Grossverkehrswege durch Berlin. Verkehrsnot und Verkehrstauungen. Schnellbahnausblicke. (Zeitschrift für Kommunalwissenschaft, April-May, 1915, pp. 16–23.)

Toll, Roger W. Traffic investigation in Denver. (Electric Traction, August, 1915, pp. 433–441.)

Mr. Toll is chief engineer of the Denver Tramway Co., and the article is reprinted from the August, 1915, issue of The Tramway Bulletin, published monthly by the Denver Co.

U. S. Library of Congress. Division of Bibliography. List of references on traffic control in cities. 1915.

List of 92 titles printed as manuscript.

Water Supply

Bartow, Edward. Bureaus of water supplies. (American Journal of Public Health, September, 1915, pp. 871–874.)

Mr. Bartow is Director of the Illinois State Water Survey. Advocates control by one bureau of the hygienic as well as of the engineering branch of a city's water supply.

St. Louis, Mo. Water Commissioner. Annual report for the year ending April 1, 1915. 196, 63 pp. pls., maps, etc.

As already explained, it is not the intention, in this department, regularly to note all annual reports. Annual reports, other than the first or final report, are noted when, as in the case of this St. Louis report, they contain exceptional material. The present report is notable in that it records, in a most complete and very attractive form, the realization of the dreams and desires of every chief engineer and water commissioner of St. Louis water works for the past half century. The new filter plant, the largest of its type in the world, was opened on May 15, 1915. Aside from a detailed, amply illustrated account of this plant, there is on p. 173 a table showing yearly revenue derived from water rates in St. Louis from first introduction of water into the city to date, viz., 1835–1914. On p. 193 there is a table showing condition of water works revenue since adoption of scheme and charter, viz., 1879–1915.

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